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# Andrews' Series of Natin School Books.

## PUBLISHED BY CROCKER AND BREWSTER,

47 WASHINGTON STREET, BOSTON.

THE LATIN SCHOOL BOOKS prepared by Prof. F. A. ANDREWS, exclusive of his Latin-English Lexicon, founded on the Latin-German Lexicon of Dr. Freund, constitute two distinct series, adapted to different and distinct purposes. The basis of the First Series is Andrews' First Latin Book; of the Second, Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar.

### FIRST SERIES.

This Series is designed expressly for those who commence the study of Latin at a very early age, and for such as intend to pursue it to a limited extent only, or merely as subsidiary to the acquisition of a good English education. It consists of the following works, viz.:—

- 1. Andrews' First Latin Book; or Progressive Lessons in Reading and Writing Latin. This small volume contains most of the leading principles and grammatical forms of the Latin language, and, by the logical precision of its rules and definitions, is admirably fitted to serve as an introduction to the study of general grammar. The work is divided into lessons of convenient length, which are so arranged that the student will, in all cases, be prepared to enter upon the study of each successive lesson, by possessing a thorough knowledge of those which preceded it. The lessons generally consist of three parts:—1st. The statement of important principles in the form of rules or definitions, or the exhibition of orthographical or etymological forms; 2d. Exercises, designed to illustrate such principles or forms; and 3d. Questions, intended to assist the student in preparing his lesson. In addition to the grammatical lessons contained in this volume, a few pages of Reading Lessons are annexed, and these are followed by a Dictionary comprising all the Latin words contained in the work. This book is adapted to the use of all schools above the grade of primary schools, including also Academies and Female Seminaries. It is prepared in such a manner that it can be used with little difficulty by any intelligent parent or teacher, with no previous knowledge of the language.
- 2. The Latin Reader, with a Dictionary and Notes, containing explanations of difficult idioms, and numerous references to the Lessons contained in the First Latin Book.
- 3. The Viri Romæ, with a Dictionary and Notes, referring, like those of the Render, to the First Latin Book. This series of three small volumes, if faithfully studied according to the directions contained in them, will not only render the student a very tolerable proficient in the principles of the Latin language and in the knowledge of its roots, from which so many words of his English language are derived, but will constitute the best preparation for a thorough study of the English grammar.

## SECOND SERIES.

Note.—The "Latin Reader" and the "Viri Romæ," in this series, are the same as in the first series.

This Series is designed more especially for those who are intending to become thoroughly acquainted with the Latin language, and with the principal classical authors of that language. It consists of the following works:—

1. Latin Lessons. This small volume is designed for the younger classes of Latin students, who intend ultimately to take up the larger Grammar, but to whom that work would, at first, appear too formidable. It contains the prominent principles of Latin grammar, expressed in the same language as in the larger Grammar, and likewise Reading and Writing Lessons, with a Dictionary of the Latin words and phrases occurring in the Lessons.

- 2. Latin Grammar. Revised, with Corrections and Additions. A Grammar of the Latin Langrage, for the use of Schools and Colleges. By Professors E. A. ANDIEWS and S. STODDARD. This work, which for many years has been the text-book in the department of Latin Grammar, claims the merit of having first introduced into the schools of this country the subject of grammatical analysis, which now occupies a conspicuous place in so many grammars of the English language. More than twenty years have elapsed since the first publication of this Grammar, and it is hardly necessary to say that its me<sup>-1</sup>:s<sup>-1</sup>: ang it in a practical view, profining the above every other Latin Grammar—have been so fully appreciated that it has been adopted as a Text Book in nearly every College and Seminary in the country. The present edition has not only been thoroughly revised and corrected (two years of continuous labor having been devoted to its careful revision and to the purpose of rendering it conformable in all respects to the advanced position which it aims to occupy,) but it contains at least one third more matter than the previous editions. To unite the acknowledged excellencies of the older English manuals, and of the more recent German grammars, was the special aim of the authors of this work; and to this end particular attention was directed:-1st. To the preparation of more extended rules for the pronunciation of the language; 2d. To a clear exposition of its inflectional charges; 3d. To a proper basis of its syntax; and 4th. To greater precision in rules and definitions.
- 3. Questions on the Grammar. This little volume is intended to aid the student in preparing his lessons, and the teacher in conducting his recitations.
- 4. A Synopsis of Latin Grammar, comprising the Latin Paradigms, and the Principal Rules of Latin Etymology and Syntax. The few pages composing this work contain those portions of the Grammar to which the student has occasion to refer most frequently in the preparation of his daily lessons.
- Latin Reader. The Reader, by means of two separate and distinct sets of notes, is equally adapted for use in connection either with the First Latin Book or the Latin Grammar.
- 6. Viri Romæ. This volume, like the Reader, is furnished with notes and references, both to the First Latin Book and to the Latin Grammar. The principal difference in the two sets of notes found in each of these volumes consists in the somewhat greater fulness of those which belong to the smaller series.
- 7. Latin Exercises. This work contains exercises in every department of the Latin Grammar, and is so arranged that it may be studied in connection with the Grammar through every stage of the preparatory course. It is designed to prepare the way for original composition in the Latin language, both in prose and verse.
- 8. A Key to Latin Exercises. This Key, in which all the exercises in the preceding volume are fully corrected, is intended for the use of feachers only.
- 9. Cæsar's Commentaries on the Gallie War, with a Dictionary and Notes. The text of this edition of Cæsar has been formed by reference to the best German editions. The Notes are principally grammatical. The Dictionary, which, like all the others in the series, was prepared with great labor, contains the usual significations of the words, together with an explanation of all such phrases as might otherwise perplex the student.
- 10. Sallust. Sallust's Jugarthine War and Conspiracy of Cataline, with a Dictionary and Notes. The text of this work, which was based upon that of Cortius, has been modified by reference to the best modern editions, especially by those of Kritz and Geriach; and its orthography is, in

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general, conformed to that of Pottier and Planche. The Dictionaries of Cæsar and Sallust connected with this ser'es are original works, and, in connection with the Notes in each volume, furnish a very complete and satisfactory apparatus for the study of these two authors.

11. Ovid. Selections from the Metamorp' oses and Heroides of Dvid, with Notes, Grammatical References, and Lxercises in Scanning. These selections from Ovid are designed as an introduction to Latin poetry. They are accompanied with numerous brief notes exp' anatory of difficult phrases, of obscure historical or mythological allusions, and especially of grammatical difficulties. To these are added such Exercises in Scanning as serve fully to introduce the student to a knowledge of Latin prosody, and especially of the structure and laws of hexameter and pentameter verse.

In announcing the Revised Edition of ANDREWS AND STODDARD'S LATIN GRAMMAR, the Publishers believe it to be quite unnecessary to speak of the merits of the work. The fact that in the space of about Theory Years, SIXTY-FIVE EDITIONS, numbering above 'I wo liundred Thousand Copies, have been required for the purpose of meeting the steadily increasing demand for the work, sufficiently evinces the estimation in which it has been held. In preparing this Revised and Enlarged Edition, every portion of the original work has been reconsidered in the light of the experience of twenty years spent by the present editor in studies connected with this department of education, and with the aid of numerous publications in the same department, which, during this period, have issued from the European press. The results of this labor are apparent on almost every page, in new modifications of the old materials, and especially in such additional information in regard to its various topics as the present advanced state of classical education in this country seemed obviously to demand. The publishers commend this new collision of Teachers throughout the country, and express the lope that in its present form it will be deemed worthy of a continuance of the flavor which it has so long received.

The following are extructs from a few of the many letters the Publishers have received from teachers from all parts of the country in commendation of this work:—

The revised edition of Andrews and Stoldard's Latin Grammar is without doubt the best published in America. I have no doubt that the time is near at hand when this series of works will, by all lovers of the classics, be considered as the 'National Series.' The pronunciation is now by the same class considered the American Standard. I will hail with jny the day when every college and school in our country shall have adopted Prof Andrews' series as the foundation of true classic knowledge. As such I consider it, and for that reason have I used it since I first knew its existence.—Martin Armstrong, Potomac Swinnary, Rommey, Va.

Allow me to say, after a careful examination, that, in my judgment, it is the best naunal of Latin Grammar to be found in the English language. In revising it the author has preserved the happy medium between saying too much and too little, so desirable for a Latin text-book for this country. In philosophical arrangement, simplicity of expression, and for brevity and fullness, it must entitle the author to the first rank in American classical scholarship. I shall use it in my classes, and recommend it to all teachers of Latin in this country.—N. E. Coblegh, Professor of Ancient Languages and Literature, in Laurence University, Appleton, Wis.

I most heartily concur in the above recommendation .- F. O. Blair, Professor in Lawrence University.

The Grammar, as revised, is, I think, for school purposes superior to any work of the kind yet published in America. Philosophic in its arrangement and definitions, and full and accurate in its details, it sets forth the results of the learned researches of the Germans in language easy of comprehension and suitable for reference in daily recitations.—
L. H. Denen, Lebanon, Illinois.

I am highly pleased with the Revised Edition, and consider the additions as decided improvements. In my opinion Dr. Andrews' works surpass all others in the market. I see no reason why the Grammar should not now supersede even Zumpt's, both in the study and recitation rooms.—Sidney A. Norton, Hamilton, Ohio.

I have reason to believe that the improvements, introduced into the last edition of Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar by my respected and lamented friend Dr. Andrews, a little before his death, add very decidedly to the value of a work, which has done more to give the knowledge of that language to the youth of this country than any perhaps than all others.—Theodor W. Woolsey, Prasident of Yale College, New Haven.

No book, probably, has done more to improve classical training in American schools than Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar. Its use is almost universal; and where it has not itself been adopted as a manual, it has made grammars of similar excellence necessary. The last edition, the sixty-fifth, was carefully revised by the lamented Dr Andrews, not long before his death, by whom it was greatly enlarged by the incorporation of much valuable information, derived mainly from the last edition of the Latu Grammar of Professor Zumpt. It will therefore be found to be much improved as a repository of the principles and facts of the Latin language.—Thomas A. Thacker, Professor of Latin in Yule College, New Harest

It is unnecessary to commend a latin Grammar, which has been for twenty years in common use in our Colleges, and has generally superseded all others. The Revised Edition contains the results of the labors of Dr. Andrews, during all that time, on various Latin Classics, and on his great Latin Lexicon; and cannot, therefore, but be greatly improved.—Edward Robinson, D. D., LL. D., Prof of Biblical Literature in Union Theol. Seminary, New York City.

I regard Andrews' and Stodhard's new Latin Grammar, as an exceedingly valuable work. It evidently contains the results of the Author's careful and long continued investigation, and from its fulness, clearness, and securacy, will undoubtedly become the Standard Latin Grammar of this Continent. In Western New York, we have for a long time been using the earlier editions, and they have rapidly wou upon the public regard. This new edition will give it a stronger claim upon our favor. It must rapidly supersede all others. I can unhesitatingly recommend the New Grammar as the best in use.— Leves H. Clark, Principal of Sodus Acad my, Wayne Co., N. Y.

I have looked over the new edition of the Grammar with great interest. It is now eighteen years since I introduced it into this college, and I have never felt inclined to change it for any other. The revision, without changing its general character, has added greatly to its failness and completeness. It is now fully equal to Zumpt's in these respects, and far superior to it in adaptation to the class room. There is no other school grammar that can pretend to compare with it. I have introduced the new edition here, and have no idea I shall ever wish to substitute another. The services of Prof. Andrews in the cause of classical learning in the United States cannot be over estimated.—M. Stargus, Professor in Hanover College, Induana.

I am willing to say that I am decidedly in favor of Andrews' Latin Series.—Geo. Gale, Galesville University, Wisconsin.

Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar I consider decidedly the best Latin Grammar ever published.—Ransom Norton, North Livermore, Maine.

Such a work as Andrews and Stoddard's Revised Latin Grammar needs no recommendation, it speaks for itself.—A. A. Keen, Professor of Greek and Latin, Tufts College, Medford, Ms.

I have examined the revised edition of Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar, and think it a complete success. I see it has all of Zunput's merits and none of his defects, and welcome its advent with great pleasure.—Janies M. Whiton, Hopkins Grammar School, New Haven, Conn.

I have examined Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar, and say, without hesitation, that the principles of the Latin language can be more easily and systematically acquired from it than any work I have ever seed. The arrangement and simplicity of its terms are such as to make it easily comprehended by the beginner, while, at the same time, its copiousness is sufficient for the most advanced student. The author has evidently noted and profited by the defects in this respect of most of the Latin Grammars now in use.—C. W. Field, Masch Chunk, Pa.

The superior merits of the original work are too well known and appreciated to need any commendation from me. I have had some means of knowing how great pains and labor Dr. Andrews has bestowed upon this final revision and improvement of the work, and, therefore, was not unprepared to find its acknowledged excellence materially increased, and I do not hesitate to say, that its value has been greatly enhanced, and that it has been brought as near as practicable to the present state of philological science.—
John D. Philotrick, Superintendent of Public Schooks, city of Easten

I have looked the Grammar through with much care and a great degree of satisfaction, and I unhesistatingly pronounce it superice to any Latin Grammar in method and manner of discussion, and happily adapted to the wants of both teachers and pupils.—J. W. Simonds, Principal of New England Christian Institute, Andoore, N. II.

We have lately introduced the Revised Edition, and regard it as a great improvement upon former editions. We shall use it exclusively in future.—E. Flint, Jr., Principal of Lee High School.

After a due examination, I am happy to state that the Author has admirably accomplished the objects which he aimed at in making this last revision. He has added much that is in the highest degree valuable without materially changing the arrangement of the original work. The work appears to me well adapted to the daily use of our Classical Schools, and I shall hereafter direct my classes to use it.—C. L. Cushman, Principal of Peabody High School, South Danvers, Ms.

The Revised Grammar seems to me greatly improved and to be every thing a scholar could wish.—Z. B. Sturgis, Charlestown, Indiana.

I have subjected the Revised Edition to the test of actual use in the recitation room, and am persuaded that in its present form it decidedly surpasses every other Latin Grammar in point of adaptation to the wants of students in our Academies, High Schools and Colleges.—William S. Palmer, Central High School, (Karetland, Okio.

I think Andrews' Series of Iatin Works the most systematic and best arranged course I have ever seen—and believe if our pupils would use them altogether, we should find them much better scholars. I shall use them wholly in my school.—A. C. Slockin, Principal of Monmouth Academy, Mainten.

The examination of the Revised Edition has afforded me very great pleasure, and leads me to express the deep and sincere conviction that it is the most complete Grammar of the Latin language with which I am acquainted, and best adapted for ready consultation upon any subject connected with the study of Latin Authors. The paper, the typography, and the bindit g.—the whole style of publication—are such as to commend the good taste and judgment of the Publishers.—J. R. Boyd, Principal of Maplewood Young Ladies Institute, Platsfield, Mass.

I find the Revised Edition to be just what is needed for a Latin Grammar,—clear, comprehensive, set concise, in the subject matter—I shall introduce it as a permanent text-book.—B. F. Duke, Principal of Clyde High School, Wayne Co., N. Y.

I have carefully examined your levised Edition throughout, particularly the Corrections and Aditions. It now appears to me all that can be desired. It seems like parting with a familiar friend to lay aside the old edition, with its many excellencies, and adopt the new. but I shall cheerfully make the scerifice for the greater benefit that will accrue to those commencing the study of Latin from time to time.—J. H. Graham, Principal of Northfield Institution, Vermont.

I thought before that the old edition was entitled to the appellation of "The Latin Grammar." but I perceive its value has been much increased by the numerous emendations and additions of Prof. Andrews. The Grammar is now fitted to be a complete hand-book for the Latin scholar during his whole course.—E. W. Johnson, Canton Academy, Canton, N. Y.

I unhesitatingly pronounce the Revised Edition of Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar the best Grammar of the Latin Lauguage, and shall certainly use my influence in its behalf.—H. E. J. Clute, Edinboro', Pa.

After a thorough examination, I have no hesitation in pronouncing it the best Latin frammar for the purposes of the recitation room that I have ever exami et I. its present form it ought certainly to displace a large majority of the Grammars in common use. Its rules of Syntax are expressed with accuracy and precision, and are in fact, what all rules ought to be, reliable guides to the learner—James W. Andrews, Principal of Hopewell Academy, Pennse

Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar, in the arrangement and adaptation to the learner, has excelled all others, and the revised edition is certainly a great improvement, and I do believe is better adapted to the wants of the student than any other. The whole seems to be critically revised and corrected. Prof. Andrews was truly the student's benefactor.—M. L. Severance, Noth Troy, Vermont.

It gives me great pleasure to bear my testimony to the superior ments of the Latin Grammar edited by Professor Andrews and Mr. Stoddard. I express most cheerfully, unbestatingly, and decidedly, my preference of this Grammar to that of Adam, which has, for so long a time, kept almost undisputed sway in our schools.—Dr. C. Beck, Cambridge.

I know of no Grammar published in this country, which promises to answer so well the purposes of elementary classical instruction, and shall be glad to see it introduced into our best schools.—Charles K. Dillaway, Bostom.

Your new Latin Grammar appears to me much better suited to the use of students than any other grammar I am acquainted with.—Prof. Wm. M. Holland, Hartford, Ct.

I have adopted the Latin Grammar of Andrews and Stoddard in the school under my charge, believing it better adapted, upon the whole, for elementary instruction than any similar work which I have examined. It combines the improvements of the recent German works on the subject with the best features of that old favorite of the schools, Dr. Adam's Latin Grammar—Henry Drister, Professor of Latin in Oblambia College.

A careful review of the Revised Edition of Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar, shows that this favorite text-book still continues to deserve the affections and confidence of Teachers and Pupils, incorporating as it does the results of Prof. Andrews' own constant study for many years with the investigations of English and German Philologists. No other Grammar is now so well fitted to meet the wants of the country as the rapid demand for it will show beyond doubt.—A. S. Hartsell, University of St. Louis

This Grammar of the Latin Language, now universally pronounced the very best, is greatly improved by the corrections, revisions and additions of this revised edition. We do not believe a text-book was ever written which introduced so great an improvement in the method of teaching Latin, as this has done. We wish the revised edition the greatest success, which we are sure it merits.—Rhode. We wish the revised edition the greatest success, which we are sure it merits.—Rhode Eduad Schoolmaster.

I have examined your revised edition with considerable care, and do not hesitate to pronounce it a great improvement upon the old editions, and as near perfection as we are likely to have. I have no doubt it will come into general use.—A. Williams, Professor of Latin, Afferson College, Canonshurg, Pa.

I have been much interested in the Revised Edition. The improvement is very staking, and I shall no longer think of giving it up and putting Zampt in its place. I am much pleased with the great improvement in the typography. You have given to our schools a book fifty per cent better in every respect, and I trust you will have your reward in largely increased sales.—William J. Rolfe, Master of Oliver High Echool, Laurence, Ms.

I can with much pleasure say that your Grammar seems to me much better adapted to the present condition and wants of our schools than any one with which I am acquanted, and to supply that which has long been wanted—a good Latin Grammar for common use.—F. Gardner, Principal of Boston Latin School.

The Latin Grammar of Andrews and Stoddard is deserting, in my opinion, of the approbation which so many of our ablest teachers have bestowed upon it. It is believed that, of all the grammars before the public, this has greatly the advantage, in regard both to the excellence of its arrangement, and the accuracy and copiousness of its information.—H. B. Hatkett, Prof. of Biblical Literature in Nucton Theological Sminary.

The universal favor with which this Grammar is received was not unexpected. It will bear a thorough and discriminating examination. In the use of well-defined and expressive terms, especially in the syntax, we know of no Latin or Greek grammar which is to be compared to this.—American Quarterly Register.

These works will furnish a series of elementary publications for the study of Latin altogether in advance of any thing which has hitherto appeared, either in this country or in England.—American Biblical Repository.

I cheerfully and decidedly bear testimony to the superior excellence of Andrews and Scoldard's Latin Grammar to any manual of the kind with which I am acquainted. Every part bears the impress of a careful compiler. The principles of syntax are happily developed in the rules, whilst those relating to the moods and tenses supply an important deficiency in our former grammars. The rules of prosody are also clearly and fully exhibited.—Per. Lyman Cobram, Mancketer, V.

This work bears evident marks of great care and skill, and ripe and accurate scholarship in the authors. We cordially commend it to the student and teacher.—Biblical Repository.

Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar is what I expected it would be—an excellent book. We cannot he sitate a moment in laying aside the books now in use, and introducing this.—Rev. J. Penney, D. D., New York.

Andrews and Stoldard's Latin Grummar bears throughout evidence of original and thorough investigation and sound criticism. It is, in my apprehension, so far as simplicity is concerned, on the one hand, and philosophical views and sound scholarship on the other, far preferable to other grammars; a work at the same time highly creditable to its authors and to our country—Prof/ssor A. Packard, Enwidon Charles, Maine.

I do not hesitate to pronounce Andrews and Stoblard's Latin Grammar superior to any other with which I am acquainted. I have never seen, any where, a greater amount of valuable matter compressed within limits equally marrow.—Hon. John Hall, Principal of Ellington School, Conn.

We have no hesitation in pronouncing this Grammar decidedly superior to any now in use.—Boston Recorder.

# Dr. Robinson's Gesenius.

Robinson's Hebrew Lexicon. Sixth Edition, Revised and Stereotyped. A Hebrew and English Lexicon of the Old Testament, including the Biblical Chaldee. Translated from the Latin of William Gesenius, late Professor of Theology in the University of Halle-Wittemberg. By EDWARD ROBINSON, D. D., LL. D., Professor of Biblical Literature in the Union Theological Seminary, New York. A new edition, with corrections and large additions, partly furnished by the author in manuscript, and partly condensed from his larger Thesaurus, as compiled by Roediger. These corrections and additions were made by Dr. Gesenius, during an interval of several years, while carrying his Thesaurus through the press, and were transcribed and fur-nished by him expressly for this edition. They will be found to be very numerous, every page having been materially corrected and enlarged, and a large number of articles having been re-written. It is printed on a new type, the face and cut of which is very beautiful, and has been highly commended and approved.

Dr. Robinson had already been trained to the business of lexicographical labor, when he began the translation of the present work. He is, in an uncommon degree, master of his own native tougue. He has diligence, patience, perseverance—yea, the iron dili-gence of Gesenius himself. For aught that I have yet been able to discover, all that can reasonably be expected or desired. has been done by the translator; not only as to reudering the work ioto English, but as to the manner and the accuracy of printing. The work will speak for itself, on the first opening. It does honor, in its appearance, to editor, printers, and publishers. I have only to add my hearty wish, that its beautiful white pages may be consulted and turned over, until they become thoroughly worn with the hands of the purchasers .- Prof. Stuart, in the Biblical Repository.

There is no lexicon in English that can be put on a level with Robinson's. I recommend the present as the best Lexicon of the Hebrew and Biblical Chaldee which an English scholar can have. - Rev. Dr. Samuel Davidson, of London.

Gesenius' Lexicon is known wherever Hebrew is studied. On the merits of this work criticism has long ago pronounced its verdict of approval .- London Jewish Chronicle.

This is a very beautiful and complete edition of the best Hebrew Lexicon ever yet produced. Gesenius, as a Hebrew philologist, is unequalled.-London Clerical Journal. This is decidedly the most complete edition of Gesenius' Manual Hehrew Lexicon .-

# Robinson's Harmony of the Gospels, in Greek.

A Harmony of the Four Gospels, in Greek, according to the text of Hahn. Newly arranged, with Explanatory Notes, by EDWARD ROBINSON, D. D., LL. D., Professor of Biblical Literature in the Union The-ological Seminary, New York. Revised Edition.

London Journal of Sacred Literature.

This work of I.A. Robinson confines itself to the legitimate sphere of a Harmony of the Gospels; and we do not hesitate to say that in this sphere it will be found to be all that a Harmony need or can be. The original text is printed with accuracy and elegance. It is a feast to the eyes to look upon a page of so much beauty. Its arrangement is distinguished for simplicity and convenience. No one will ever be able to comprehend the relations of the Gospels to each other, or acquire an exact knowledge of their contents, unless he studies them with the aid of a Harmony. The present work furnishes in this respect just the facility which is needed; and we trust that among its other effects, it will serve to direct attention more strongly to the importance of this mode of study.→ Prof. Hackett, of Newton Theological Seminary.

## Palmer's Arithmetic.

Arithmetic, Oral and Written, practically applied by means of Suggestive Questions. By Thomas H. Palmer, Author of the Prize Essay on Education, entitled the "Teacher's Manual," "The Moral Instructor," etc.

# Robinson's Harmony of the Gospels, in English.

A Harmony of the Four Gospels, in English, according to the common version; newly arranged, with Explanatory Notes. By EDWARD ROMINSON, D. D., LL. D.

The object of this work is to obtain a full and consecutive account of all the facts of our Lord's life and ministry. In order to do this, the four gospel narratives have been so brought together, as to present as nearly as possible the true chronological order, and where the same transaction is described by more than one writer, the different accounts are placed side by side, so as to fill out and supply each other. Such an arrangement affords the only full and perfect survey of all the testimony relating to any and every portion of our Lord's history. The evangelists are thus made their own best interpreters; and it is shown how wonderfully they are supplementary to each other in minute as well as in important particulars, and in this way is brought out fully and clearly the fundamental characteristics of their testimony, unity in diversity. To Bible classes, Sabbath schools, and all who love and seek the truth in their closets and in their families, this work will be found a useful assistant.

I have used 'Robinson's English Harmony 'in teaching a Bible Class. The result, in my own mind, is a conviction of the great merits of this work, and its adaptation to impart the highest life and interest to Bible Class exercises, and generally to the diligent study of the Gospel. It is much to be desired that every one accustomed to searching the Scriptures should have this invaluable aid.—Rev. Dr. Skinner, New York.

## Robinson's Dictionary of the Bible.

Robinson's Bible Dictionary. A Dictionary for the use of Schools and Young Persons. By EDWARD ROBINSON, D. D., LL. D. Illustrated with Engravings on wood, and Maps of Canaan, Judea, Asia Minor, and the Peninsula of Mount Sinai, Idumea, etc.

## Elements of Astronomy.

The Elements of Astronomy; or The World as it is Lessons in Grammar," etc. Revised in manuscript by George P. Bond, Esq., of the Cambridge Observatory, to whom the author is also indebted for superintending its passage through the press.

## Scott's Family Bible.

Scott's Family Bible. Boston Stereotype Edition. 6 vols, royal 8vo., containing all the Notes, Practical Observations, Marginal References, and Critical Remarks, as in the most approved London edition, with a line engraved likeness of the Author, Family Record, etc.

This Edition is the only one that has, or can have, the benefit of the final Additions and Emendations of the Author. The extent of these may be judged from the fact that upwards of Four Hundred Pages of letter-press were wided; and as they consist chiefly of Critical Remarks, their importance to the Biblical student is at once apparent. The Preface to the entire work contains an elaborate and compendious view of the evidences that the Holy Scripners were given by inspiration of God. Prefixed to each Book, both in the Ord and New Testament, is an Introduction, or statement of its purport and intent. There are also copious Marginal References, with various Tables, a Chronological Index, and a copious Topical Index.

Allan Cafsels

## GRAMMAR

OF THE

# LATIN LANGUAGE;

FOR THE

USE OF SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

Y

E. A. ANDREWS AND S. STODDARD.

THE SIXTY-FIFTH EDITION.

REVISED WITH CORRECTIONS AND ADDITIONS,

BY E. A. ANDREWS, LL. D.

BOSTON:

PUBLISHED BY CROCKER AND BREWSTER,

47 Washington Street.

1861.

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Entered according to Act of Congress, in the year 1857,

BY CROCKER AND BREWSTER,

In the Clerk's Office of the District Court of Massachusetts.

## PREFACE.

As more than twenty years have elapsed, since the first publication of this Grammar, it can scarcely be necessary, in offering to the public a revised edition of the work, to make more than a passing allusion to its original plan or to the circumstances to which it owed its origin.

For some years previous to the date of its publication, the progress of classical learning in Europe, and particularly in Germany, had been such, as plainly to indicate the necessity of a corresponding advance in the manuals of Latin grammar employed in the schools of this country. Their deficiencies had indeed become so apparent, that various attempts had already been made to furnish a remedy by means of translations of German grammars; but none of these, however excellent in many respects, had seemed to be fully adapted to the purpose for which they were intended.

To unite the acknowledged excellencies of the older English manuals and of the more recent German grammars was the special aim of the authors of this work; and to this end their attention was directed, first to the preparation of more extended rules for the pronunciation of the language, secondly to a clearer exposition of its inflectional changes, thirdly to the proper basis of its syntax, and fourthly to greater precision in its rules and definitions.

The system of rules for the division and accentuation of Latin words, prepared in pursuance of the plan which has just been specified, was accordingly more copions than any previously found in the Latin grammars in common nse in this country. For the purpose also of preventing the formation of erroneous habits of pronunciation in the early part of the student's course, the penultimate quantities of all Latin words occurring in the Grammar were carefully marked, unless determinable by some general rule, and the paradigms were divided and accented in such a manner as to indicate their true pronunciation.

In their treatment of Latin etymology, the authors aimed to render its study less a mere exercise of memory, and in a greater degree an efficient aid in the general cultivation of the mental powers. The principal means adopted for this purpose consisted in the practical distinction, every where made in treating inflected words, between the root, or ground-form, and the termination.

The third prominent peculiarity of the original work was its direct derivation of the rules of Syntax from the logical analysis of sentences, and its distinct specification of the particular use of each of the several words of which a sentence is composed. This method of treating syntax—a method previously unknown in the schools of this country—has, since that period, been extensively adopted, and in some instances greatly extended, particularly in a portion of the English grammars recently published in this country, and has probably contributed more to the advancement of grammatical science, than any other innovation of modern times.

The errors noticed in the original work have been corrected, as successive editions have issued from the press, but no opportunity has occurred, until the present, of thoroughly revising it in every part. Two years of continuous labor have now been devoted to its revision, and to the purpose of rendering it conformable in all respects to the advanced position which it originally aspired to occupy.

In all the modifications which have now been made, I have aimed to accomplish these two purposes-to preserve, as far as possible, the identity of the work, and at the same time to bring it as near, as should be practicable, to the present state of philological science. Hence, while I have made no changes either in language or arrangement, but such as appeared to me quite necessary, I have omitted none which logical accuracy or requisite fulness of explanation seemed to demand. In doing even this it soon became evident, that the changes and additions must be more numerous, than would well consist with the convenient use of the old and the new editions in the same classes. Though not insensible of the trouble occasioned to the teacher by alterations in a familiar text-book, I could not but suppose, that such modifications as the progress of the last twenty years had rendered necessary, would still be welcomed by him, notwithstanding the personal inconvenience arising from the disturbance of his previous associations. To his pupils, who will have known no other form of the Grammar, than that in which it now appears, the work, it is believed, will not only be as easy of comprehension in its new, as in its old form, but in its practical application far more satisfactory.

Of the minor changes and additions occurring on almost every page, and even of the occasional rearrangement of small portions of the materials, it is unnecessary to speak particularly. The student familiar with former editions will at once detect these slight modifications, and note them in his memory for future use; and though he may fail to find a rule, exception, or remark on the page where he has been wont to see it, he will still meet with it in the same relative position,—in the same section and subdivision of the section in which it formerly appeared.

In the department of Orthoepy will now be found some account of the Continental mode of pronouncing Latin; and, by means of the joint exhibition of this and of the English methods, the student will be able to use the Grammar with equal facility, whether choosing to adhere to the usual pronunciation of English and American scholars, or preferring that of the continental schools.

In the Etymology of nouns, no other alteration need be specified, except the introduction, in the third declension, of "Rules for forming the nominative singular from the root." These are copied, in a modified form, from the editor's First Latin Book. In themselves they are of considerable utility in showing the mutual relations between the sounds of certain letters, and they are also closely connected with corresponding changes in some of the verbal roots. In the Etymology of adjectives, besides the minor modifications already alluded to, a few changes in arrangement have been made in those sections which relate to Comparison. To pronouns have been added some remarks on Pronominal Adjectives, which seemed to require a more particular notice, than they had heretofore received, both in their relation to each other and to the Adverbial Correlatives. The Etymology of particles has been treated somewhat more fully than in former editions—a fulness especially observable in relation to adverbs and conjunctions, and which was rendered necessary by the more extended treatment of those particles in the revised Syntax.

In almost every section of the Syntax the student will meet with modifications and especially with additions, which, as in other parts of the work, are introduced in such a manner as seldom to interfere with the references made to former editions in the series based upon this Grammar. The principal exception to the latter remark is to be found in sections 247—251, which relate to certain uses of the ablative.

A comparison of the Prosody in the present and former editions will show, that it has been revised with minute care in every part. Similar attention has also been given to the Appendix, in which will be found some additions relating to Roman Money, Weights and Measures. For the greater convenience of the student the Index in this edition has been much enlarged.

In conclusion, I would briefly indicate the principal sources from which have been derived the various additions and corrections, to which allusion has been made. In preparing the original work, the earlier editions of Zumpt's Grammar were consulted at almost every step, and while frequent use was made of the grammars of Scheller, Grant, Adam, Ruddiman, Hickie and others, the treatises of Zumpt were even then regarded as the most valuable embodiment of the principles of Latin philology. It was therefore natural and almost unavoidable, in revising a work which had in so many points received both its form and its substance from the earlier labors of that distinguished grammarian, to look to his maturer works for many of the materials by means of which our original sketch should be made more complete. Accordingly I have constantly consulted the last edition of his Grammar, translated by Dr. Schmitz, and have freely incorporated in this edition such

of its materials, as were suited to my purpose In most cases his ideas have been either expressed in my own language, or in language so modified as to suit the general plan of my work. In the Etymology, and not unfrequently in the Syntax also, the copious Grammar of Ramshorn has furnished valuable materials; and the Grammars of Key and of Kühner, the latter translated by Prof. Champlin, have been consulted with profit and satisfaction. In the sections comprising conjunctions, and especially in those relating to grammatical analysis, I am happy to acknowledge my indebtedness to Prof. S. S. Greene of Brown University. To the sources already specified I must add the Latin Lexicon of Dr. Freund, in editing a translation of which I had frequent occasion to note such matters as promised to be of utility in the revision of this Grammar. The additions in the Appendix relating to Roman money, etc., are taken principally from Dr. Riddle's translation of Dr. Freund's School Dictionary. To these references I will only add, that such other notes relating to Latin philology, as I have made during the past twenty years, so far as they were adapted to my purpose, have either been used in my former occasional corrections, or are incorporated in the present edition.

In taking a final leave of the earliest of the elementary Latin works with which my name has been associated, and with which, in my own mind, must ever be connected the pleasant memory of my early friend and associate, Prof. Stoddard, I trust I shall be pardoned in commending it once more to the kind indulgence of the teachers of this country, and in expressing the hope that, in its present form, it will be deemed not altogether unworthy of a continuance of the favor which it has so long received. I cannot indeed venture to indulge the hope, that all the imperfections of the work have even now been removed, or that, in my attempts to render it more perfect, I may not sometimes have fallen into new errors; but this I can truly say, that since its first publication I have devoted much time to its revision, and have sought to manifest my sense of the kindness with which it has been received, by doing all in my power to render it less unworthy of public favor.

E. A. ANDREWS.

New Britain, Conn., Oct., 1857.

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## LATIN GRAMMAR.

- § 1. The Latin language is the language spoken by the ancient Romans. Latin Grammar teaches the principles of the Latin language. These relate,
  - To its written characters;

2. To its pronunciation;

3. To the classification and derivation of its words;4. To the construction of its sentences;

5. To the quantity of its syllables, and its versification.

The first part is called Orthography; the second, Orthoëpy; the third. Etymology; the fourth, Syntax; and the fifth, Prosody.

## ORTHOGRAPHY.

- § 2. Orthography treats of the letters, and other characters of written language, and the proper mode of spelling words.
- 1. The Latin alphabet consists of twenty-five letters. They have the same names as the corresponding characters in English. They are A, a; B, b; C, c; D, d; E, e; F, f; G, g; H, h; I, i; J, j; K, k; L, l; M, m; N, n; O, o; P, p; Q, q; R, r; S, s; T, t; U, u; V, v; X, x; Y, y; Z, z.

2. The Romans used only the capital letters.

- I and j were anciently but one character, as were likewise u and v.
   W is not found in Latin words, and k occurs only at the beginning of a few words before a, and even in these c is commonly used, except in their abbreviated form; as, K or Kal. for Kalendæ or Calendæ, the Calends.

Y and z are found only in words derived from the Greek. 6. H. though called a letter, only denotes a breathing, or aspiration.

#### DIVISION OF LETTERS.

§ 3. Letters are divided into vowels and consonants.

i, o, u, y
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

2. X is equivalent to cs or gs; z to ts or ds; and, except in compound words, the double consonant is always written, instead of the letters which it represents. In some Greek words x is equivalent to chs.

#### DIPHTHONGS.

§ 4. Two vowels, in immediate succession, in the same syllable, are called a diphthong.

The diphthongs are ae, ai, au, ei, eu, oe, oi, ua, ue, ui, uo, uu, and yi. Ae and oe are frequently written together, a, a.

## PUNCTUATION.

The only mark of punctuation used by the ancients was a point, which denoted pauses of different length, according as it was placed at the top, the middle, or the bottom of the line. The moderns use the same marks of punctuation, in writing and printing Latin, as in their own languages, and assign to them the same power.

Marks of quantity and of accent are sometimes found in Latin authors, especially in elementary works:-

- There are three marks of quantity, viz. ", -, "; the first denotes that the vowel over which it stands is short; the second, that it is long; the third, that it is doubtful, that is, sometimes long and sometimes short.
- 2. There are also three written accents—the acute ( '), the grave ('), and the circumflex ('). These were used by the old grammarians to denote the rising and sinking of the voice in the Roman mode of pronouncing words. (See §§ 14 and 15.) In modern elementary Latin works, the acute marks the emphatic syllable of a word, (§ 16), the grave distinguishes certain particles from other words spelled in the same manner; as, quod, because; quod, which; and the circumflex is placed over certain penultimate and final syllables that are formed by contraction.

The diæresis (") denotes that the vowel over which it stands does not form a diphthong with the preceding vowel; as, aër, the air. It is used principally with ae, ai, and oe.

## ОКТНОЁРҮ.

## § 6. Orthoëpy treats of the right pronunciation of words.

The ancient pronunciation of the Latin language being in a great measure lost, the learned, in modern times, have applied to it those principles which regulate the pronunciation of their own languages; and hence has arisen, in

different countries, a great diversity of practice.

The various systems now prevalent in Europe, may, however, be reduced to two—the Continental and the English—the former prevailing, with only slight diversities, in most of the countries of continental Europe, and the latter in England. Their principal difference is found in the pronunciation of the vowels and diphthongs, since, in both methods, the consonants are pronounced in nearly the same manner.

#### THE CONTINENTAL METHOD.

[According to this system, each of the vowels, when standing at the end of a syllable, is considered as having but one sound, which, however, may be either short or long. Thus,

Short  $\bar{a}$ , as in hat.

Long  $\bar{a}$ , as in father.

Short  $\bar{c}$ , as in met.

Long  $\bar{a}$ , as in there.

Short  $\bar{i}$ , as in there.

Short  $\bar{i}$ , as in machine.

Short  $\bar{a}$ , as in machine.

Short  $\bar{a}$ , as in machine.

Short  $\bar{a}$ , as in not.

Long  $\bar{a}$ , as e in there.

au, as e in in our.

eu, as in feudal.

ei, as  $\bar{a}$  in ice.

REMARK. These sounds are sometimes slightly modified when followed by a consonant in the same syllable.]

#### THE ENGLISH METHOD.

In the following rules for dividing and pronouncing Latin words, regard has been had both to English analogy and to the laws of Latin accentuation. See § 14 and 15. The basis of this system is that which is exhibited by Walker in his "Pronunciation of Greek and Latin Proper Names." To pronounce correctly, according to this method, a knowledge of the following particulars is requisite:—

Of the sounds of the letters in all their combinations.

2. Of the quantities of the penultimate and final syllables.

Of the place of the accent, both primary and secondary.
 Of the mode of dividing words into syllables.

### OF THE SOUNDS OF THE LETTERS.

### I. OF THE VOWELS.

§ 7. A vowel, when ending an accented syllable, has always its long English sound; as,

pa'-ter, de'-dit, vi'-vus, to'-tus, tu'-ba, Ty'-rus; in which the accented vowels are pronounced as in fatal, metre, vital, total, tutor, tyrant.

- 1. A, at the end of an unaccented syllable, has nearly the sound of a in father or in ah, but less distinct or prolonged; as, mu'-sa, e-pis'-tō'la, a-cer'-bus, Pal-a-mē'-des; pronounced mu'-zah, etc.
- 2. E, o, and u, at the end of an unaccented syllable, have nearly the same sound as when accented, but shorter and less distinct; as, re'-te, vo'-lo, u'-su-i.
  - 3. (a.) I final has always its long sound; as, qui, au'-di, le-ga'-ti.

    Rem. 1. The final i of tibi and sibi has its short sound.
- (b.) I, at the end of an unaccented syllable not final, has an indistinct sound like short e; as, Fa'-bi-us (fa'-be-us), phi-los'- $\check{o}$ -phus (phe-los'-o-phus).

Exc. I has its long sound in the first syllable of a word the second of which is accented, when it either stands alone before a consonant, as in i-do'ne-us, or ends a syllable before a vowel, as in fi-d'-dam.

REM. 2. Y is always pronounced like i in the same situation.

§ 8. A vowel has always its short English sound, when followed by a consonant in the same syllable; as,

nog'-nus, reg'-num, fin'-go, hoc, fus'-tis, cyg'nus, in which the vowels are pronounced as in magnet, seldom, finish, copy, lustre, symbol.

EXCEPTION 1. A, when it follows qu before dr and rt, has the sounds of a in quadrant and in quart; as, qua'-dro, quad-ra-gin'-ta, quar'-tus. In other connections a before r has the sound of a in part; as, par-ti-ceps, ar'-ma; except when followed by another r, as in par-ri-ci-da.

Exc. 2. Es, at the end of a word, is pronounced like the English word ease; as, iq'-nes, au'-des.

Exc. 3. Os, at the end of plural cases, is pronounced like ose in dose; as, nos, il'-los, dom'-i-nos.

Exc. 4. Post is pronounced like the same word in English; so also are its compounds; as, post'-quam, post'-e-a; but not its derivatives; as, pos-trë-mus.

Exc. 5. E, i and y before final r, or before r in a syllable not final, when followed in the next syllable by any other consonant, except r, have the sound of e and i in the English words her and fir; as, fer, fert, fer'E-lis; hir, hir'cus, myr'-lus.

### II. OF THE DIPHTHONGS.

- § 9. Ae and oe are always diphthongs unless separated by diæresis. They are pronounced as e would be in the same situation; as, e'-tas, e'-tas, pe'-na, e'-tum.
- 1. Ai, ei, oi, and yi, usually have the vowels pronounced separately. When they are accented, and followed by another vowel, the i is pronounced like initial y, and the vowel before it has its long sound; as, Maia, Pompeius, Troia, Harpyia; pronounced Ma'-ya, Pom-pe'-yus, Tro'-ya, Har-py'-ya.

REMARK 1. Ei, when a diphthong and not followed by another vowel, is pronounced like i; as in hei, om'-neis.

2. Au, when a diphthong, is pronounced like aw; as, laus, au'-rum, pronounced laws, etc.

REM. 2. In the termination of Greek proper names, the letters au are pronounced separately; as, Men-e-lā-us.

3. Eu, when a diphthong, is pronounced like long u; as, heu, Orpheus (or-phuse), Eu-phrā-tes.

REM. 3. The letters eu are pronounced separately in the terminations eus and eum of Latin nouns, and of all adjectives, whether Greek or Latin, except neuter; as, ur'-ce-us, me'-us, me'-um. In other situations they form a diphthong; as, Eu-v'-pa, The'-seus, e'-heu.

4. Ua, ue, ui, uo, uu, when diphthongs, are pronounced like wa, we, etc.; as, lin'-gua, que'-ror, sua'-de-o, quo'-tus, e'-quus. They are always diphthongs after q, usually also after g, and often after s.

5. Ui in cui and huic, when monosyllables, is pronounced like wi, and by some like long i.

### III. OF THE CONSONANTS.

§ 10. The consonants have, in general, the same power in Latin as in English words.

The following cases, however, require particular attention.

#### C.

C has the sound of s before e, i, and y, and the diphthongs  $\alpha$ ,  $\alpha$ , and eu; as, ce'-do, ci'-bus,  $C\alpha'$ -sar,  $c\alpha'$ -lun, ceu, Cy'-rus. In other situations, it has the sound of k; as,  $C\alpha'$ -to, cru'-dus, lac.

1. Ch has always the sound of k; as, charta (kar'-tah), machina (mak'-ĕ-nah).

Exc. C, following or ending an accented syllable, before i followed by a vowel, and also before eu and yo, has the sound of sh; as, socia (so'-she-ah), caduceus (ca-du'she-us), Sicyon (sish'-e-on).

REMARK. In the pronunciation of the ancient Romans, the hard sound of c and g seems to have been retained in all their combinations.

#### G.

G has its soft sound, like j, before e, i, and y, and the diphthongs x and x; as ge'-nus, ag'-i-lis, Gy'-ges, Gx- $t\bar{u}'$ -li. In other situations, it has its hard sound, as in bag, go.

Exc. When g comes before g soft, it coalesces with it in sound; as, agger (aj'-er), exaggeratio (ex-aj-e-ra'-she-o).

#### S.

§ 11. S has generally its hissing sound, as in so, thus.

Exc. 1. (a.) When si followed by a vowel is immediately preceded by a consonant in an accented syllable, the s has the sound of sh; as, Per-si-a (per-she-a).

(b.) But when si or zi followed by a vowel is immediately preceded by an accented vowel, the s or z has the sound of zh; as, As-pa'-si-a (as-pa'-zhe-ah), Sa-ba'-zi-a (sa-ba'-zhe-ah).

Note. In a few proper names, s preceded by a vowel in an accented syllable and followed by i before another vowel, has the sound, not of zh, but of sh; as, A'-si-a (a'-she-a): so Sosia, Theodosia, Lysias.

Exc. 2. S, at the end of a word, after e,  $\alpha$ , au, b, m, n, and r, has the sound of z; as, res,  $\alpha$ s, laus, trabs, hi-ems, lens, Mars.

English analogy has also occasioned the s in Ce'-sor, ce-sū'-ra, mi'-ser, mu'-sa, re-sid'-u-um, cau'-sa, ro'-sa, and their derivatives, and in some other words, to take the sound of z. Ces-a-re'-a, and the oblique cases of Ces-ar, retain the hissing sound; so likewise the compounds of trans; as, trans-e-o.

#### T.

§ 12. 1. T, following or ending an accented syllable before i followed by a vowel, has the sound of sh; as, ratio (ra'-she-o), Sulpitius (sul-pish'-e-us).

#### X.

2. X, at the beginning of a syllable, has the sound of z; at the end, that of ks; as, Xenŏphon (zen'-o-phon); axis (ak'-sis).

Exc. 1. When ex or ux is followed by a vowel in an accented syllable, x has the sound of gx; as, exemplum (eg-zem'-plum), ux-o'-ri-us (ug-zo'-re-us), inexhaustus (in-eg-zaus'-tus).

Exc. 2. X ending an accented syllable before i followed by a vowel, and before u ending a syllable, has the power of ksh; as, noxius (nok'-she-us), pexui (pek'-shu-i).

REMARK. Ch and ph, before th, in the beginning of a word, are silent; as, Chthonia (tho 'mia'), Puthia (thi'a). Also in the following combinations of consonants, in the beginning of words of Greek origin, the first letter is not sounded:—mne-mon'-i-ca, gna'-wus, tme'-sis, Cte'-si-as, Ptol-e-ma'-us, psal'-lo.

# OF THE QUANTITIES OF THE PENULTIMATE AND FINAL SYLLABLES.

- § 13. 1. The quantity of a syllable is the relative time occupied in pronouncing it.
- 2. A short syllable requires, in pronunciation, half the time of a long one.

REM. The penultimate syllable, or penult, is the last syllable but one. The antepenult is the last syllable but two.

- The quantity of a syllable is generally to be learned from the rules of proceedy, §§ 282—301; but for the convenience of the student, the following general rules are here inserted:—
  - 3. A vowel before another vowel or h is short.
  - 4. Diphthongs, not beginning with u, are long.

- 5. A vowel before x, z, j, or any two consonants, except a mute followed by a liquid, is long by position, as it is called.
- 6. A vowel naturally short before a mute followed by a liquid is common, i. e. either long or short.

In this Grammar, when the quantity of a penult is determined by one of the preceding rules, it is not marked; in other cases, except in dissyllables, the proper mark is written over its vowel.

To pronounce Latin words correctly, it is necessary to ascertain the quantities of their last two syllables only; and the rules for the quantities of final syllables would, for this purpose, be unnecessary, but for the occasional addition of enclitics. As these are generally monosyllables, and, for the purpose of accentuation, are considered as parts of the words to which they are annexed, they cause the final syllable of the original word to become the penult of the compound. But as the enclitics begin with a consonant, the final words of all words ending with a consonant, if previously short, are, by the addition of an enclitic, made long by position. It is necessary, therefore, to learn the quantities of those final syllables only which end with a vouch.

#### OF ACCENTUATION.

#### I. OF LATIN ACCENTS.

- § 14. 1. Accent, in Latin, signifies the rising and falling of the voice in pronouncing the syllables of a Latin word. It is a general rule of the Latin language, that every word has its accent. The enclitics, however, have no accent of their own, but they modify the accent of the words to which they are annexed, and prepositions lose their accent, when they precede the cases which they govern.
- they govern.

  2. The Latin language has three accents, the acute ('), or rising tone, the grave ('), or falling tone, and the circumflex ('), composed of the acute and the grave, i. e. of the rising and the falling tone.
- 3. A monosyllable, when short by nature, takes the acute, when long by nature, the circumflex accent; as, pix,  $\acute{e}t$ ,  $p\mathring{a}rs$ ;  $d\mathring{o}s$ ,  $j\mathring{u}s$ ,  $sp\mathring{e}s$ .
- 4. In words of two syllables, the penult is always accented; as,  $p\ddot{a}'ter$ ,  $m\ddot{a}'-ter$ , pen'-na.
- REM. 1. Words of two syllables have the circumflex accent, when the rowel of the penult is naturally long and that of the last syllable short; as,  $R\partial \neg m \hat{a}_n \, \bar{m} = \hat{s}_n \, \hat{t} = \hat{c}_n \, \hat{t} = \hat{s}_n \, \hat{t} = \hat{$
- In words of more than two syllables, if the penult is long, it is accented; but if it is short, the accent is on the antepenult; as, a-mi'-cus, dom'-i-nus.
- Rax. 2. When the accent of a word of more than two syllables falls upon the penult, it may be either the circumflec or the accute according as the last syllables is sort or long. The antepenult can take no accent except the acute, and in no case can the accent be drawn farther back than to the antepenul.
- Exc. Vocatives of the second declension in i, instead of ie, from nominatives in its, and genitives in i, instead of  $\ddot{u}$ , are accented as they would be, if the rejected letters were annexed, i. e. with the acute upon the penult, even when it is short; as, Vir-gilai;  $Va-le^ir$ ,  $in-ge^i-n$ . So, also, the compounds of factorith with words which are not prepositions; as,  $ac_ilae^j a^i c_i n$ ,  $it_ip-e_j n^i c_i c_i$ .
- § 15. If the penult is *common*, the accent, in prose, is upon the *antepenult*; as, vol-ù-cris, phar-è-tra, ib'-ù-que: but genitives in us, in which i is common, accent their penult in prose; as, u-ni-us, is-ti-us.

- REM. 8. All the syllables of a Latin word, except that on which the acute or circumflex accent falls, are supposed to have the grave accent, and were pronounced with the lower tone.
- 1. The rules for the accentuation of compound and simple words are, the same; as, se'-cum, sub'-e-o.
- 2. In accentuation, the enclitics que, ne, ve, and also those which are annexed to pronouns,\* are accounted constituent parts of the words to which they are subjoined; as, i\*-ta, i'-d-que; vi\*-rum, vi\*-rum'-que.

#### II. OF ENGLISH ACCENTS.

§ 16. Accent, in English, is a particular stress of voice upon certain syllables of words. Cf. § 5, 2.

According to the English method of pronouncing Latin, a word may have two, three, or even four accents. That accent which is nearest to the termination of the word, and which always corresponds in position with the Latin accent, is called the primary or principal accent, and the secondary accent is that which next precedes the primary. The third and fourth accents, in like manner, precede the secondary, and are subject in all respects to the same rules; as, pit-ter, mid-ter, ser-mid-nes, dom'd-ins; pe-ric'-ū-lum, con'-ju-ra'-ū-i-o, op''-por-tu'-ni-d-tes, ex-e'''-c-ta'-ti-o, or''-i-bus'-que.

- 1. If only two syllables precede the primary accent, the secondary accent is on the first; as, mod"-e-rā-tus, tol"-e-rab'-ī-lis.
- 2. If three or four syllables stand before the primary accent, the secondary accent is placed, sometimes on the first, and sometimes on the second syllable; as, de-mon"-stra-ban'-tur, ad"-o-les-cen'-ti-o
- Some words which have only four syllables before the primary accent, and all which have more than four, have three accents; as, mod "-e-ra'-ti-ō-nis, tot"-e-ra-bit'-i-ō-rem, ex-er'-ci-ta'-ti-ō-nis.

#### DIVISION OF WORDS INTO SYLLABLES.

#### VOWELS.

§ 17. Every Latin word is to be divided into as many syllables, as it has separate vowels and diphthongs.

REMARK. In the following rules, the term rowel includes not only single vowels, but diphthongs; and when a particular vowel is montioned, a diphthong, also, ending with that vowel is intended.

#### CONSONANTS.

#### SPECIAL RULES.

- § 18. REMARK. The following special rules, relating to particular letters or to particular combinations of letters, are in all cases to be regarded rather than the general rules, §§ 19—23, when the latter are inconsistent with the former.
- 1. II, when standing alone between two vowels, is always joined to the vowel that follows it.

Thus, mi'-hi, tra'-he-re, co'-hors, ro''-hor-ta'-ti-o.

<sup>\*</sup>These are te, met, pte, ce, cine. and dem; as, tute, egomet, meapte, hicce, hiccine, idem.

Ch, ph, and th, in the division of words into syllables, are considered, not as separate letters, but as single aspirated mutes, and hence are never separated.

Thus, A-chil'-les, Ach"-ra-di'-na, Neph'-ĕ-le, Te'-thys.

3. Gl,  $\ell l$ , and  $\ell h l$ , when standing alone between any two vowels, unless the first be u, and h l after u are always separated.

Thus, Æy'-le, Ay-lau'-rus, At'-las, ath-let'-i-cus; —Pub'-li-us, Pub-lic'-o-la, res-

pub'-li-ca.

4. In writing syllables, x, when standing alone between two vowels, is united to the rowel before it, but, in pronouncing such syllables, its elementary sounds are separated.

Thus, sax'-um(suk'-sum); ax-il'-lu(ak-sil'-lah); ex-em'-plum(eg-zem'-plum); ux-o'-ri-us(ug-zo'-re-us).

#### GENERAL RULES.

#### I. SIMPLE WORDS.

## § 19. A .- A single Consonant between two Vowels.

 A single consonant, or a mute with l or r, between the last two vowels of a word, or between the vowels of any two unaccented syllables, must be joined to the latter vowel.

Thus,  $\ell$  in  $p\check{a}'$ -ter and au'-tem; th in a'-ther; cl in H-er'- $\delta$ -cles; q in  $\check{a}'$ -qua; cr in  $\check{a}'$ -cris and vo'- $\check{a}$ -cris; chr in a'-chras; r in tol''-e-ra-bi'-i-us; m in ti'-g-mo-b'-gi-a: 1 in am'-bu- $|\check{a}$ -to'-ri-us; and gr in per''-e-gri-na'-ti-o. Respecting ch and dr of,  $\S$  18, 2.

Exc. Tib'-i and sib'-i are commonly excepted.

§ 20. 2. A single consonant, or a mute with l or r, before the vowel of an accented syllable, must be joined to the accented vowel.

Thus, i in i-tin'-i-ra; d in ri-di'-to; th in a-the'-ri-us; el in Eu-cli'-des and Her'-a-cli'-a; gr in a-gres'-tis and a-gric'-ō-lu; pr in ca-pre'-ō-lus; q in a-qua'-ri-us; and phr in Eu-phri'des.

§ 21. 3. A single consonant after the vowel of any accented syllable, except a pennit, must be joined to the accented vowel.

Thus, m in dom'-i-nus and dom''-i-na'-ti-o; t in pat'-ë-ra; th in Scyth'-i-a; and q in aq'-ui-la (ak'-we-lah), and Aq''-ui-ta'-ni-a (ak''-we-ta'-ne-ah).

 When a mute with l or r follows the vowel of any accented syllable, except the penult, the mute is to be joined to the accented vowel.

Thus, cr in ac'ri-ter, nc''vi-mo'ni-a; tr in det''-ri-men'-tum; pr in cap'-ri-pes, cay''-ri-mul'-gus, phi in Paph''-la-go'-ni-a; and phr in Aph''-vo-dis'-i-a. Respecting phi and phr cf. § 18, 2.

### EXCEPTIONS TO THE 3D AND 4TH RULES.

Exc. 1. A single consonant, or a mute with l or r, after an accented a, e, or o, and before two vowels the first of which is e, i, or y, must be joined to the syllable following the accent.

Thus, d in ra'-di-us, ta'-di-um, me''-di-a'-tor; r in ha'-re-o, Ca''-ry-d'-tes; ch in bra'-chi-um; q in re'-qui-es, re'-qui-es'-eo; tr in pa'-tri-us, tE-no'-tri-a; and r and t in ee'-re-a-t-t-t-t

Exc. 2. A single consonant or a mute with l or r, after an accented u, must be joined to the vowel following it.

Thus, r in lu'-ri-dus, au'-re-us; cr in Eu'-cri-tus; gl in ju'-glans; and pl in Nau'-pli-us, du'-pli-co, and du''-pli-ca'-ti-o. Cf. § 18, 3.

## § 22. B.—Two Consonants between two Vowels.

Any two consonants, except a mute followed by l or r in the cases before mentioned, when standing between two vowels, must be separated.

Thus, rp in cor'-pus, rm in for'-ma and ger-ma'nus; rv in ca-ter'-va; sc in ad-o-tes'-cens; nn in au'-nus; phth in aph'-tha; cch in Bac'-chus and Bac''-cha-na'-t-a; and th in ath-te'-ta.

### C .- Three or four Consonants between two Vowels.

1. When three consonants stand between any two vowels, the last, or, if that be l or r after a mute, the two last, are joined to the latter vowel.

Thus, mpt in emp'-tor, ad-emp'-ti-o; str in fe-nes'-tra; mpl in ex-em'-plum; rthr in ar-thri-tis.

2. When four consonants stand between two vowels, two are joined to each vowel; as, nstr in trans-trum.

#### II. COMPOUND WORDS.

§ 23. 1. In dividing a compound word into syllables the component parts are to be separated, if the former part ends with a consonant; as, ab-es-se, in'-ers, cir'-cum-er'-ro, su'-për-est, sub'-i-tus, præter'-e-a, trans'-i-tur, sub'-stru-o. So, also, if a consonant is inserted to prevent hiatus, it is joined to the preceding vowel; as, prod'-e-o, red'-e-o, sed-i'-i-o.

2. But if the former part either ends with a vowel, or has dropped its termination, it is to be divided like a simple word; as, def'-e-ro, dif'-i-gens, be-nev'-o-lus, pras'-to, eg'-o-met; --po'-tes, po-tes'-tis, an''-i-mad-ver'-to, ve'-ne-o (from venum, eo), mag-nau'-l-mus, am-ba'-ges,

lon-gæ'-vus.

## ETYMOLOGY.

- § 24. 1. Etymology treats of the different classes of words, their derivation, and their various inflections.
- 2. The classes, into which words are divided in reference to their signification, are called  $Parts\ of\ Speech.$

- 3. The parts of speech in Latin are eight—Substantive or Noun, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction, and Interjection.
- 4. The first four are *inflected*; the last four, which are sometimes called *Particles*, are *not inflected*, except that some adverbs change their termination to express comparison.

Rem. Substantives, pronouns, and adjectives are often included by grammarians under the general term nouns; but, in this Grammar, the word noun is used as synonymous with substantive only

- § 25. 1. To verbs belong Participles, Gerunds, and Supines, which partake of the meaning of the verb, and the inflection of the noun.
- Inflection, in Latin grammar, signifies a change in the termination of a word. It is of three kinds—declension, conjugation, and comparison.
- 3. Nouns, adjectives, pronouns, participles, gerunds, and supines, are declined; verbs are conjugated, and adjectives and adverbs are compared.

#### NOUNS.

- § 26. 1. A substantive or noun is the name of an object.
- 2. A proper noun is the name of an individual object; as, Cæsar; Rôma, Rome; Tiběris, the Tiber.
- 3. A common or appellative noun is the name of a class of objects, to each of which it is alike applicable; as, hômo, man or a man; avis, a bird; quercus, an oak; leo, a lion; mendacium, a falsehood.
- 4. A collective noun is one which, in the singular number, denotes a collection of individuals; as, exercitus, an army.
- Rem. 1. The following are examples of nouns used as collectives, viz. exercitus, gens, juventus, multitudo, nobilitas, piebs. popūlus, turba, vis, and vulgus.
- 5. An abstract noun is the name of a quality, action, or other attribute; as, bonitus, goodness; gaudium, joy; festinatio, haste.
- Rem. 2. A concrete, in distinction from an abstract noun, is one which denotes an object that has an actual and independent existence; as,  $R\bar{o}ma$ ,  $h\bar{o}mo$ ,  $pep\bar{u}lus$ , ferrum.
- 6. A material noun is the name of a substance considered in the gross; as, lignum, wood; ferrum, iron; cžbus, food.
- Rem. 3. Proper, abstract, and material nouns become common, when employed to denote one or more of a class of objects. A verb in the infinitive mood is often used as an abstract noun.
  - 7. To nouns belong gender, number, and case.
- Ram. 4. Adjectives and participles have likewise different genders, numbers, and cases, corresponding to those of nouns.

#### GENDER.

- § 27. 1. The gender of a noun is its distinction in regard to sex.
- 2. Nouns have three genders—the masculine, the feminine, and the neuter.
  - 3. The gender of Latin nouns is either natural or grammatical.

4. Those nouns are naturally masculine or teminine, which are used to designate the sexes; as, vir, a man; mulier, a woman.

5. Those are grammatically masculine or feminine, which, though denoting objects that are neither male nor female, take adjectives of the form appropriated to nouns denoting the sexes.

Thus, dominus, a lord, is naturally masculine, because it denotes a male; but sermo, speech, is grammatically masculine, because, though not indicative of sex, it takes an adjective of that form which is appropriated to rouns denoting males.

- 6. The grammatical gender of Latin nouns depends either on their signification, or on their decleusion and termination. The following are the general rules of gender, in reference to signification. Many exceptions to them, on account of termination, occur: these will be specified under the several decleusions.
- § 28. MASCULINES. 1. Names, proper and appellative, of all male beings are masculine; as, *Homērus*, Homer; *păter*, a father; *consul*, a consul; *ĕquus*, a horse.

As proper names usually follow the gender of the general name under which they are comprehended; hence,

 Names of rivers, winds, and months, are masculine, because flucius, ventus, and mensis, are masculine; as, Tibčris, the Tiber; Aquilo, the north wind; Aprilis, April.

Exc. Styx and some names of rivers in a and e are feminine. §§ 62, and 41, 1.

- 3. Names of mountains are sometimes masculine, because mons is masculine; as, Othrys, a mountain of Thessaly; but they usually follow the gender of their termination; as, hic\* Allus, hec Idn, hoc Soracte.
- § 29. Feminines. 1. Names, proper and appellative, of all female beings are feminine; as, *Helěna*, Helen; *māter*, a mother; *juvenca*, a heifer.
- 2. Names of countries, towns, trees, plants, ships, islands, poems, and gems, are feminine; because terra, urbs, arbor, planta, nācis, institu, fabila, and gemma, are feminine; as,

Ægyptus, Egypt; Corinlius, Corinth; pārus, a pear-tree; nardus, spikenard; Centaurus, the ship Centaur; Sāmos, the name of an island; Euhāchus, the Eunuch, a comedy of Terence; amethystus, an amethyst.

<sup>\*</sup>To distinguish the gender of Latin nouns, grammarians write his before the masculine, has before the feminine, and hos before the nenter.

COMMON AND DOUBTFUL GENDER. Some words are either masculine or feminine. These, if they denote things animate, are said to be of the common gender; if things inanimate, of the doubtful gender.

Of the former are parens, a parent; bos, an ox or cow; of the latter, finis, an

#### The following nouns are of the common gender:-

Adolescens, a youth. Aff mis, a relative by marriage. Ales, a bird. Antistes, a chief priest. Auctor, an author. Augur, an augur. Bos, an ox or cow. Cănis, a dog. Cīvis, a citizen. Comes, a companion. Conjux, a spouse. Consors, a consort. Convīva, a guest. Custos, a keeper. Dux, a leader.

Exsul, an exile. Grus, a crane. Hospes, a guest, a host. Hostis, an enemy. Index, an informer. Infans, an infant. Interpres, an interpreter. Jüdex, a judge. Juvěnis, a youth. Martyr, a martyr. Mīles, a soldier. Municeps, a burgess. Mus, a mouse. Nēmo, nobody. Obses, a hostage. Patruelis, a cousin.

Palumbes, a wood-pigeon. Părens, a parent. Par. a mate. Præses, a president. Præsul, a chief priest. Princeps, a prince or princess. Serpens, a serpent. Sacerdos, a priest or priestess. Satelles, a life-guard. Sus, a swine. Testis, a witness. Vātes, a prophet. Verna, a slave. Vindex, an avenger.

The following hexameters contain nearly all the above nouns:-

Conjux, atque părens, princeps, pătruelis, et infans, Affinis, vindex, jūdex, dux, mīles, et hostis, Augir, et antistes, juvėnis, conviva, sicerdės, Mūni-que-ceps, vätės, adolescens, civis, et auctor, Custos, uėmo, comes, testis, sus, boš-que, ciani-que, Pro consorte tūri par, præsul, verna, sätelles, Mus-que obses, consors, interprès, et exsul, et hospes.

- § 31. 1. When nouns of the common gender denote males, they take a masculine adjective; when they denote females, a feminine.
- The following are either masculine or feminine in sense, but masculine only in grammatical construction:-

Artifex, an artist. Auspex, a soothsayer. Eques, a horseman.

Fur, a thief. Hēres, an heir.

Lătro, a robber. Liběri, children. Homo, a man or woman. Pedes, a footman.

To these may be added personal appellatives of the first declension; as, advěna, a stranger; and some gentile nouns; as, Persa, a Persian.

§ 32. 1. The following, though masculine or feminine in sense, are feminine only in construction :-

Copiæ, troops. Custodiæ, guards. Excubiæ, sentinels. Opěræ, laborers. Proles, Suboles, offspring. Vigiliæ, watchmen.

2. Some nouns, signifying persons, are neuter, both in their termination and construction; as,

Acroāma, a buffoon.

Auxilia, auxiliaries.

Mancipium, a slave.

Scortum, Prostibūlum, a prostitute.

- 3. (a.) In some personal appellatives masculines and feminines are distinguished by different terminations affixed to the same root. The masculines end in us, er, o, tor, etc.; the feminines in a or trix; as, cŏquus, cŏquu; magister, magister, lēno, lēna; inventor, inventrix; tibicen, tibicina; āvus, avia; rex, reqna; poēta, poētria.
- (b.) So also in some names of animals; as, ĕquus, ĕqua; gallus, gallua; leo, lea and leæna. Sometimes the words are wholly different; as, learns, racca.
- 4. Some names of animals are sometimes masculine and sometimes feminine without regard to difference of sex; as, anguis, serpens, dāma, talpa, tigris, colüber and colübra, etc.
- \$33. EPICENES. Names of animals which include both sexes, but admit of an adjective of one gender only, are called *epicene*. These commonly follow the gender of their terminations.

Thus, passer, a sparrow, corrus, a raven, are masculine; aquila, an eagle, vulpes, a fox, are feminine; though each of them is used to denote both sexes.

Note. This class includes the names of animals, in which the distinction of sex is seldom attended to. When it is necessary to mark the sex, mas or femina is usually added.

- § 34. NEUTERS. Nouns which are neither masculine nor feminine, are said to be of the neuter gender; such are,
  - 1. All indeclinable nouns; as, fas, něfas, nihil, gummi, pondo.
- 2. Names of letters; as, o longum, long o. But these are sometimes feminine, litëra being understood.
- 3. Words used merely as such, without reference to their meaning; as, pater est dissyllābum; pater is dissyllabic.
- 4. All infinitives, imperatives, clauses of sentences, adverbs, and other particles, used substantively; as scire tuum, your knowledge; ultimum vule, the last farewell; hoc din, this (word) din.

 $\ensuremath{\mathtt{Remark}}$  . 1. Words derived from the Greek retain the gender which they have in that language.

REM. 2. Some nouns have different genders in the singular and plural, and are called heterogeneous nouns. See § 92.

#### NUMBER.

- § 3.5. 1. (a.) Number, in nouns, is the form by which they denote whether they represent one object or more than one.
- (b.) Latin nouns have two numbers,—the singular and the plural,—which are distinguished by their terminations. The singular number denotes one object; the plural, more than one.

#### PERSON.

2. The person of a noun or pronoun is the character sustained by the object which it represents, as being the speaker, the person addressed, or the person or thing spoken of.

Hence there are three persons. The speaker is of the *first* person, the person addressed is of the *second* person, and the person or thing spoken of is of the *third* person.

#### CASES.

§ 36. Many of the relations of objects, which, in English, are denoted by prepositions, are, in Latin, expressed by a change of termination.

Cases are those terminations of nouns, which denote their relations to other words. Latin nouns have six cases; viz. Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative, Vocative, and Ablative.

REMARK. Though there are six cases in each number, no noun has in each number so many different terminations.

§ 37. 1. The nominative denotes the relation of a subject to a finite verb; as, ego scribo, I write. Caius dicit, Caius says.

- 2. The genitive denotes origin, possession, and many other relations, which, in English, are expressed by the preposition of or by the possessive case; as, Vita Cæsăris, the life of Cæsar, or Cæsar's life.
- 3. The dative denotes that to or for which any thing is, or is done; as, Ille mihi librum dedit, He gave the book to me.
- 4. The accusative is either the *object* of an active verb, or of certain prepositions, or the *subject* of an infinitive.
- 5. The vocative is the form appropriated to the name of any object which is addressed.
- The ablative denotes privation, and many other relations, especially those expressed in English by the prepositions with, from, in, or bi.

REMARK. The nominative and vocative are sometimes called casus recti, i. e. the uninflected cases; and the others, casus obliqui; i. e. the oblique or inflected cases.

#### DECLENSIONS.

§ 38. The regular forming of the several cases in both numbers, by annexing the appropriate terminations to the root, is called declension.

The Latin language has five declensions or modes of declining nouns, distinguished by the termination of the genitive singular, which, in the first declension, ends in  $\alpha$ , in the second in i, in the third in is, in the fourth in is, and in the fifth in  $\epsilon i$ 

§ 39. The following table exhibits a comparative view of the terminatious or case-endings of the five declensions.

#### TERMINATIONS.

				9					
	I.	II.		III.		IV.			v.
		M.	N.	M.	N.	М.		N.	
Nom. Gen. Dat.	ă, æ,	ŭs, ĕr, ī,	ŭm,	ŏr, etc.	ĕ, etc. <sup>8</sup> ,	ŭs,	ũs,	ū, ū,	ēs, eï,
Acc. Voc.	æ, ăm, ă,	ō, ŭm ĕ, ĕr,	ŭm,	ĕm,(ĭm ŏr, etc.	, ), ĕ, etc. . ĕ, etc.	uī, ŭm, ŭs,		ū, ū, ū,	ēn, ēs,
Abl.	ā.	ō.		ĕ, (	(i.)		ū.	1	ē.

### Plural.

Nom.	æ,	ī, ōrŭm,	ă,	ēs,	ă, (iă),	űs,	uă,	ēs,
Gen.	ārŭm,	ōrŭm,		ŭm,	(iŭm),	u	ŭm,	ērum,
Dat.	īs,	īs,			ĭbūs,	ĭbŭs,	ŭm, (ŭbŭs),	ēbŭs,
Acc.	ās,	ōs,	ă,	ēs,	ă, (iă),	ūs,	ù uắ,	ēs,
Voc.	æ,	î,	ă,	ēs,	ă, (iă),	ūs,	uă,	ēs,
Abl.	is.	īs.	,	۱ ′	ĭbŭs.	l ĭbūs,	(ŭbŭs).	ēbŭs.

#### Remarks.

- § 40. 1. The terminations of the nominative, in the third declension, are very numerous. See §§ 55, 58, 62, 66.
- 2. The accusative singular of masculines and feminines, always ends in m.
- 3. The vocative singular is like the nominative in all Latin nouns, except those in us of the second declension.
  - 4. The nominative and vocative plural always end alike.5. The genitive plural always ends in um.
- 6. The dative and ablative plural always end alike; -in the 1st and 2d declensions, in is; in the 3d, 4th, and 5th, in bus.
- 7. The accusative plural of masculines and feminiues, always ends in s.
- 8. Nouns of the neuter gender have the accusative and vocative like the nominative, in both numbers; and these cases, in the plural, always end in a.
- 9. The 1st and 5th declensions contain no nouns of the neuter gender, and the 4th and 5th contain no proper names.
- 10. Every inflected word consists of two parts—a root, and a termination. The root or crude form, is the part which is not changed by inflection. The termination is the part annexed to the root. The root of a declined word may be found by removing the termination of any of its oblique cases. The case commonly selected for this purpose is the genitive singular.
- 11. The preceding table exhibits terminations only. In the fifth declension. the e of the final syllable, though unchanged, is considered as belonging to the termination.

#### FIRST DECLENSION.

§ 41. Nouns of the first declension end in ă, ē, ās, ēs. Those in a and e are feminine; those in as and es are masculine.

Latin nouns of the first declension end only in a. They are thus declined:-

	Si	ngular.			Plural.	
Nom.	mū'-să,	a muse;	1	Nom.	mu'-sæ,	muses;
Gen.	mu'-sæ,	of a muse;		Gen.	mu-sā'-rŭm,	of muses;
Dat.	mu'-sæ,	to a muse;		Dat.	mu'-sīs,	to muses;
	mu'-săm,	a muse;	1	Acc.	mu'-sãs,	muses;
Voc.	mu'-să,	$O\ muse$ ;	-	Voc.	mu´-sæ,	O muses;
Abl.	mu´-sā,	with a muse.	1	Abl.	mu´-sīs,	with muses.

## In like manner decline

Au'-la, a hall.	Lit'-ĕ-ra, a letter.	Sa-git'-ta, an arrow.
Cu'-ra, care.	Lus-cin'-i-a, a nightingale.	Stel'-la, a star.
Ga'-le-a, a helmet.	Mach'-ĭ-na, a machine.	Tŏ'-ga, a gown.
In'-sŭ-la, an island.	Pen'-na, a feather, a quill.	Vi'-a, a way.

Note. As the Latin language has no article, appellative nouns may be rendered either with or without the English articles a, an, or the, according to their connection.

## EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER.

1. Names proper and appellative of men, as, Sulla, Cinna; poēta, a poet; nauta, a sailor; and names of rivers, though ending in a, are masculine: § 28, 1 and 2. But the following names of rivers have been used as feminine: viz. Albăla, Allia, Druentia, Garumna, Himera, Matrona, Mosella, Trebia. Lêthe is always feminine.

Ossa and Æta, names of mountains, are masculine or feminine.

2. Hadria, the Adriatic sea, dama in Virgil and Statius, and talpa in Virgil, are masculine.

## EXCEPTIONS IN DECLENSION.

§ 43. Genitive singular. 1. The poets sometimes formed the

genitive singular in āī; as, aula, gen. aulāī.

2. Familia, after pater, mater, filius, or filia, usually forms its genitive in as; as, mater-familias, the mistress of a family; gen. matrisfamilias; nom. plur. matres-familias or familiarum. Some other words anciently formed their genitive in the same manner.

Genitive plural. The genitive plural of patronymics in es, of several compounds in cola and gena, and of some names of nations, is sometimes, especially in poetry, formed in um instead of arum; as, Eneadum, Calicolum, terrigenum, Lapithum. So amphorum, drachmum, for amphorarum, drachmarum,

Dative and Ablative plural. The following nouns have sometimes ābus instead of is, in the dative and ablative plural, especially when it is necessary to distinguish them from the same cases of masculines in us of the second declension having the same root; as, filis et filia-

bus, to sons and daughters.

Dea, a goddess. Filia, a daughter. Equa, a mare. Müla, a she mule.

The use of a similar termination in anima, asina, liberta, nāta, conserva, and some other words, rests on inferior authority.

## GREEK NOUNS.

§ 44. Nouns of the first declension in  $\bar{e}$ ,  $\bar{a}s$ , and  $\bar{e}s$ , and some also in  $\bar{a}$ , are Greek. Greek nouns in  $\bar{a}$  are declined like musa, except that they sometimes have  $\bar{a}n$  in the accusative singular; as, 0ssa; acc. 0ssam, or 0ssam.

Greek nouns in e, as, and es, are thus declined in the singular number:-

N. Pe-nel'-	-ŏ-pē, <i>N</i>	. Æ-nē'-ās,	N. An-c	hī'-sēs.
G. Pe-nel'-	-ŏ-pēs, G	. Æ-nē'-æ,	G. An-c	hi'-sæ.
D. Pe-nel'	-n-pæ, $L$	Æ-nē'-æ.	D. An-c	hī′-sæ,
Ac. Pe-nel'-	-ŏ-pēn, A	c. Æ-nē'-ăm or	ān, Ac. An-c	hī'-sēn,
V. Pe-nel'-		Æ-nē'-ā,	V. An-c	hī'-sē or ā,
Ab. Pe-nel'-	-ŏ-pē. A	b. Æ-ne'-ā.	Ab. An-c	hī′-sā <i>or</i> ē.

## § 45. In like manner decline

Al'-o-e, aloes.	Ti-ā'-ras, a turban.
E-pit'-o-me, an abridgment.	Co-mē'-tes, a comet.
This'-be.	Dy-nas'-tes, a ruler.
Bo'-re-as, the north wind.	Pri-am'-I-des, a son o

Bo'-re-as, the north wind. Pri-am'-I-des, a son of Priam. Mi'-das. Py-ri'-tes, a kind of stone.

- Most proper names in es, except patronymics, follow the third declension; but in the accusative they often have both em and en, and in the vocative both es and e. See §§ 80, IV, and 81.
- 2. Greek nouns of the first declension, which admit of a plural, are declined in that number like the plural of musa.
- 3. The Latins frequently change the terminations of Grock nouns in ēs and ē into ā; as, Atrides, Atrida, a son of Atrens; Perses, Persa, a Persian; geomètres, geomètra, a geometrician; Circe, Circa; epitôme, epitôma; grammatice, grammatica, grammar; rhetorice, rhetorica, oratory.—So also tiàras, tiàra.

#### SECOND DECLENSION.

§ 46. Nouns of the second declension end in er, ir, us, um, os, on. Those ending in um and on are neuter; the rest are masculine.

Nouns in er, us, and um, are thus declined :-

## SINGULAR

DINGCLAM			
A lord.	A son-in-law.	A field.	A kingdom.
N. dŏm'-ĭ-nŭs,	gĕ'-nĕr,	ă'-gĕr,	reg'-nŭm,
G. dom'-I-ni,	gen'-ĕ-rī,	a'-grī,	reg'-nī,
D. dom'-ĭ-nō,	gen'-ĕ-rŏ,	a'-grō,	reg'-nō,
Ac. dom'-ĭ-nŭm,	gen'-ĕ-rŭm,	a'-grum,	reg'-num,
V. dom'-ĭ-ně,	ge'-nĕr,	a'-gĕr,	reg'-num,
Ab. dom'-ĭ-nō.	gen'-črō.	a'-grō.	reg'-nō.

#### PLURAL.

N. dom'-i-ni, gen'-č-ri, gen-e-rō'-ri, gen-e-rō'-ri, D. dom'-i-nis, Ac. dom'-i-nis, gen'-č-ris, y. dom'-i-nis, gen'-č-ris, gen'-č-ris, gen'-č-ris,	a´-grīs, a´-grōs, a´-grī,	reg'-nă, reg-nō'-rǔm, reg'-nīs, reg'-nă, reg'-nā, reg'-nā,
Ab. dom'-ĭ-nīs. gen'-ĕ-rīs.	a'-gris.	reg'-nis.

### Like dominus decline

An'-ĭ-mus, the mind.	Fŏ'-cus, a hearth.	Nu'-mĕ-rus, a number.
Clip'-e-us, a shield.	Gla'-di-us, a sword.	O-ce'-ă-nus, the ocean.
Cor'-vus, a raven.	Lū'-cus, a grove.	Trŏ'-chus, a trundling-hoop.

Note. Nouns in us of the second declension are the only Latin nouns, whose nominative and vocative singular differ in form. See § 40, R. 3.

§ 47. A few nouns in er, like gener, add the terminations to the nominative singular, as a root. They are the compounds of gero and fero; as, armiger, -eri, an armor-bearer; Lucifer, -eri, the morning star; and the following:-

A-dul'-ter, an adulterer. Cel'-ti-bēr, a Celtiberian.	Lib'-ĕ-ri, (plur.), children.	Pu'-er, a boy. Sŏ'-cer, a father-in-law.
I'-ber, a Spaniard.	Pres'-by-ter, an elder.	Ves'-per, the evening.

Mul'-ct-ber, Vulcan, sometimes has this form.

1. All other nouns in er reject the e in adding the terminations, (§ 322, 4), and are declined like ager; thus,

A'-per, a wild boar.	Li'-ber, a book.	Al-ex-an'-der.
Aus'-ter, the south wind.	Ma-gis'-ter, a master.	Is'-ter.
Fa'-ber, a workman.	On'-a-ger, a will ass.	Teu'-cer.

2. Vir, a man, with its compounds, and the patrial Trēvir, (the only nouns in ir,) are declined like gener.

## Like reman decline

	zike regnam accimo	
An'-trum, a cave. A'-tri-um, a hall. Bel'-lum, war.	Ex-em'-plum, an example. Ne-go'-ti-um,* a business. Ni'-trum, natron.	Præ-sid'-i-um, a defence. Sax'-um, a rock. Scep'-trum, a sceptre.

#### EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER.

3 4.3. 1. The follow	wing nouns in us and os ar	e feminine:—
Abvssus, a bottomless pit.	Dialectos, a dialect.	Miltos, vermilion.
Alvus, the belly.	Diphthongus, a diphthong.	Pharus(os), a light-house.
Antidotus, an antidote.	Donius, a house, home.	Plinthus, the base of a
Arctos(us), the Northern		column.
Bear.	Humus, the ground.	Vannus, a corn-fan.
Carbáene a sail		

 Greek nouns in ödus (ή öδως), and mětros, are likewise feminine; as, symódus, an assembly; diametros, a diameter.

<sup>\*</sup> Pronounced ne-go'-she-um. See § 12.

Names of countries, towns, trees, plants, etc. are feminine. See § 29, 2.

Yet the following names of plants are masculine:-

Acanthus, bear's-foot. Amarantus, amaranth. Asparagus, asparagus. Calamus, a reed. Carduus, a thistle. Dūmus, a bramble.

Ebŭlus, an elder. Hellebórus; hellebore. Intubus, endire. Juneus, a bulrush. Raphānus, a radish. Rhamnos, buck-thorn. Rŭbus, a blackberru-bush. Tribulus, a caltrops.

And sometimes Amuracus, marjoram. Cytisus, snail-clover.

Oleaster and pinaster, names of trees, are also masculine.

The following names of gems are also masculine:-

Beryllus, a beryl.

Chrysoprasus, chrysoprase. Carbunculus, a carbuncle. Opalns, opal.

So also,

Pyropus, gold-bronze,

Chrysolithus, chrysolite, and smaragdus, an emerald, are doubtful. Names of females in um are feminine: § 29, 1; as, mea Glycerium, Ter.

Names of trees and plants in um are generally neuter; as, apium, parsley; aconitum, wolf's bane.

Canopus, Pontus, Hellespontus, Isthmus, and all plural names in i of countries . and towns are masculine. Abydus(os) is doubtful.

Names of countries and towns ending in um, or, if plural, in a, are neuter; as, Ilium or Ilion; Echatana, orum.

The following are doubtful, but more frequently masculine:-

Phasēlus, a light ressel. Balanus, a date. Grossus, an unripe fig. Barbitos, a lute. Pampinus, a vine-leaf.

Atomus, an atom, and colus, a distaff, are doubtful, but more frequently feminine.

Pelăgus, the sea, and virus, poison, are neuter. Vulgus, the common people, is neuter, and rarely masculine.

## EXCEPTIONS IN DECLENSION.

Genitive singular. When the genitive singular ends in ii, the poets frequently contract it into ī; as, ingenī, for ingenii.

Vocative singular. The vocative of nouns in us is sometimes like the nominative, especially in poetry; as, fluvius, Latinus, in Virgil. So, audi tu, populus Albanus. Liv.

Proper names in ĭus omit e in the vocative; as, Horatius, Horāti; Virgilius, Virgili.

Filius, a son, and genius, a guardian angel, make also fili and geni. Other . nouns in ius, including patrials and possessives derived from proper names, form their vocative regularly in e; as, Delius, Delie; Tirynthius, Tirynthie; Laertius, Laertie.

Genitive plural. The genitive plural of some nouns of the second declension, especially of those which denote money, weight and measure, is commonly formed in um, instead of orum; § 322, 4.

Such are particularly nummum, sestertium, denarium, medimnum, jugerum, modium, talentum. The same forn. occurs in other words, especially in poetry; as, deum, liberum, Danaum; etc., and sometimes om is found instead of um; as, Achivom. Virg. Cf. § 322, 8.

## Deiis, a god, is thus declined :-

Singular.	Plural.
N. de'-us,	N. di'-i, dī, or de'-i,
G. de'-i,	G. de-ō'-rum,
D. de'-o,	D. di'-is, dīs, or de'-is,
Ac. de'-um,	Ac. de'-os,
V. de'-us,	<ol> <li>V. di'-i, dī, or de'-i,</li> </ol>
Ah. de'-o.	Ab. di is dis or de is

Jēsus, or Iēsus, the name of the Savior, has um in the accusative, and u in all the other oblique cases.

### GREEK NOUNS.

§ 54. 1. Os and on, in the second declension, are Greek terminations, and are commonly changed, in Latin, into us and um; but sometimes both forms are in use; as, Alphōos, and Alphōus; Ition and Ilium. Greek names in ros after a consonant commonly change ros into er; as, Alexandros, Alexander; Teucros, Teucer. In a few words ros is changed to rus; as, Codrus, hydrus, and once in Virgil, Teucrus.

## Greek nouns are thus declined in the singular number:-

	Singul	ar.	Barbiton, a lyre.
N.	Dē'-lŏs.	Andrŏ'-ge-ōs,	N. bar'-bi-ton,
G.	De'-lī,	An-dro'-ge-ō, or ī,	G. bar'-bī-tī,
	De'-lō,	An-dro'-ge-ō,	D. bar'-bi-to.
Ac.	De'-lon or um,	An-dro'-ge-ō, or ōn,	Ac. bar'-bi-ton,
1.	De'-le,	An-dro'-ge-os,	V. bar -bi-ton,
44	De'-lő.	Au-dro'-ge-ō.	4h. bar'-bi-tō.

- 2. The plurals of Greek nouns in os and on are declined like those of dominus and regnum; but the nominative plural of nouns in os sometimes ends in a, as, canephore.
- In early writers some nouns in os have a genitive in \(\tilde{u}\) (ov); as, Menandr\(\tilde{u}\).
   Ter.

 A genitive plural in on, instead of orum, occurs in the titles of books and in some names of places; as, Georgicon; Philinon ara. Sall.

5. Greek proper names in eas (see § 9, R. 3), are declined like dominus, except that the vocative ends in eu; but sometimes in the genitive, dative, and acentative also, they retain the Greek form, viz. gen. čos, dat. či (contracted ēi), acc. čā or čā, and are of the third declension. See § 86, and 306, (1.) So in Lorertius the neuter pedigus (Greek πίαλχος, koc) has an accusative plural pedigē for pel 19ea after the third declension. § 83, 1.—See also respecting a genitive in i of some proper nouns in es, § 73, Rem.—Panthā occurs in Virgil, A. 2, 322, as the vocative of Panthās. Cf. § 81.

#### THIRD DECLENSION.

§ 555. The number of final letters, in this declension, is twelve. Five are vowels—a, e, i, o, y; and seven are consonants—c, l, n, r, s, t, x. The number of its final syllables exceeds fifty.

REM. The following terminations belong exclusively to Greek nouns; viz.  $ma, i, y, \bar{a}n, in, \delta n, \bar{y}n, \bar{\epsilon}r, \bar{y}r, ys, eas, yx, inx, ynx, and plurals in <math>\epsilon$ .

## Mode of declining Nouns of the Third Declension.

To decline a word properly, in this declension, it is necessary to know its sender, its nominative singular, and one of its oblique cases; since the root of the cases is not always found entire and unchanged in the nominative. The case usually selected for this purpose is the genitive singular. The formation of the accusative singular, and of the nominative, accusative, and vocative plural, depends upon the gender: if it is masculine or feminine, these cases have one form; if nenter, another.

§ 56. The student should first fix well in his memory the terminations of one of these forms. He should next learn the nominative and genitive singular of the word which is to be declined. If is be removed from the genitive, the remainder will always be the root of the oblique cases, and by annexing their terminations to this root, the word is declined; thus, rupes, genitive (found in the dictionary) rupis, root rup, dative rupi, etc.: or are, gen aris, root are, data aris, etc.; opus, gen. operis, root oper, dat. operi, etc.

## Rules for Forming the Nominative Singular of the Third Declension from the Root.

I. Roots ending in c, g; b, m, p; u, t, d, and some in r, add s to form the nominative; as, trăbis, trabs; hiemis, hiems; gruis, grus.

REMARK 1. T, d and r before s are dropped; as, nepois, nepos; laudis, laus; floris, flos. So bovis, bos, drops v.

REM. 2. C and g before s form x; as, vocis, vox; regis, rex. So vs forms x in nivis, nix. Cf. §§ 3, 2, and 171, 1.

REM. 3. Short i in the root before c,b,p,t, is commonly changed to  $\ell$ ; as, policis, pollex; celibis, celebs; principis, princeps; comitis, comès. So u is changed to  $\ell$  in aucipis, auceps.

REM. 4. Short  $\check{e}$  or  $\check{o}$  before r in neuters is changed to  $\check{u}$ ; as, geněris, gen $\check{u}s$ ; temp $\check{o}r$ is, temp $\check{u}s$ .

REM. 5. Short ĕ before r is changed to ĭ in the masculines ciněris, cinis; cucuměris, cucumis; pulvēris, pulvis; voměris, vomis.

REM. 6. A few and those mostly monosyllabic roots of masculines and feminines, not increasing in the genitive, add as or is, instead of s alone; as, genrāpis, nom. rāpes; gen. auris, nom. auris.

REM. 7. A few neuters add & to the root to form the nominative; as, rētis, rētē; māris, mārē.

II. To roots ending in l and n, to some in r and s, and to those of most neuters in t, no addition is made in forming the nominative; as, animalis, animal; canonis, canon; honoris, honor; assis, as.

REMARK 1. Final on and in in the roots of masculines and feminines, become o in the nominative; as, sermonis, sermo; arandinis, arando.

REM. 2. Final in the roots of neuters becomes in in the nominative; as, fluminis, flumin. So also in the masculines, oscen, pecten, tibicen and tubicen.

REM. 3. Tr and br at the end of a root, take  $\check{e}$  between them in the nominative; as, patris, păter; imbris, imber. Cf. §§ 108, 48, and 106.

Rem. 4. Short ő is changed to ŭ in ebőris, čbűr; femőris, feműr; jecőris, jecűr; and robóris, rōbűr.

REM. 5. In the roots of neuters at drops t, and it becomes ut in the nominative; as, poëmătis, poëma; capitis, caput.

REM. 6. Roots of this class ending in repeated consonants drop one of them in the nominative; as, fellis, fel; farris, far; assis, as; bessis, bes.

The following are the two forms of termination in this declension:-PluralSingular.

Masc. and Fem.	Neut.	Mo	sc. and Fem.	Neut.
N. *	*	N.	ēs,	ă, (iă),
G. is,	ĭs,	G.	ŭm, (iŭm),	
D. $i$ ,	ī,		ĭbŭs,	ĭbŭs,
$Ac. \ \text{\'em}, (\text{\'im}),$	*	Ac.	ēs,	ă, (iă),
V. *	*	V.	ēs,	ă, (iă),
$Ab.\ \ \breve{e},\ (i).$	ĕ, (ī).	Ab.	ĭbŭs.	ĭbŭs.

The asterisk stands for the nominative, and for those cases which are like it.

§ 57. The following are examples of the most common forms of nouns of this declension, declined through all their cases.

IV. h	o -nor,	no-no -res,		tur-ris,	
G. h	o-nō'-ris,	ho-nō'-rum,	G.	tur'-ris,	t
	o-nō'-ri,	ho-nor'-i-bus,	D.	tur'-ri,	t
Ac. h	o-nō'-rem,	ho-nō'-res,	Ac.	tur'-rim, ren	1, t
V. h	o'-nor,	ho-nō'-res,	V.	tur'-ris,	t
Ab. h	o-nō'-re.	ho-nor'-i-bus.	Ab.	tur'-ri, or re	. t
			ı		
	Rūpes, a ro	ck; fem.		Nox, nig	ht;
Sin		ck; fem. $Plural$ .	s	Nox, nig ingular.	ht;
	Rūpes, a ro gular. u'-pes,		N.		ht ;
N. r	gular.	Plural.	N.	ingular.	
N. r	gular. u'-pes, u'-pis,	Plural. ru'-pes,	N.	ingular. nox, noc'-tis,	1

ru'-pes,

ru'-pes,

ru'-pi-bus.

Plural.

## Ars, art; fem.

Honor, honor; mase.

Singular.

Ac. ru'-pem, V. ru'-pes,

Ab. ru'-pe.

Singular.	Plural.	
N. ars,	ar'-tes,	
G. ar'-tis,	ar'-ti-um,*	
D. ar'-ti,	ar'-ti-bus,	
Ac. ar'-tem,	ar'-tes,	
V. ars,	ar'-tes,	
Ab. ar'-te.	ar'-tí-bus.	

	Sermo, speech; masc.			
S	ingular.	Plural.		
	ser'-mo,	ser-mō'-nes,		
G.	ser-mō'-nis,	ser-mō'-num,		
D.	ser-mō'-ni,	ser-mon'-i-bus		
Ac.	ser-mo'-nem,	ser-mō'-nes,		
V.	ser'-mo,	ser-mō'-nes,		
Ab.	ser-mō'-ne.	ser-mon'-i-bus		

$S_l$	inqular.	Plural.
N.	tur'-ris,	tur'-res,
G.	tur'-ris,	tur'-ri-um,
D.	tur'-ri,	tur'-rĭ-bus,
Ac.	tur'-rim, rem,	tur'-res,
V.	tur'-ris,	tur'-res,
47.	tun' ni or no	tur'-ri-hug

Turris, a tower; fem.

Nox, night, lem.				
S	ingular.	Plural.		
N.	nox,	noe'-tes,		
G.	noc'-tis,	noe'-ti-um,*		
D.	noc'-ti,	noc'-tĭ-bus,		
Ac.	noc'-tem,	noc'-tes,		
V.	nox,	noc'-tes,		
Ab.	noc'-te.	noc'-tĭ-bus.		

## Miles, a soldier; com. gen.

S	ingular.	Plural.
	mi'-les,	mil'-ĭ-tes,
G.	mil'-ĭ-tis,	mil'-ĭ-tum,
	mil'-ĭ-ti,	mi-lit'-ĭ-bus,
Ac.	mil'-ĭ-tem,	mil'-ĭ-tes,
V.	nii'-les,	mil'-ĭ-tes,
47	mil' i to	mi-lit'-ĭ-hug

## Pater a father mase.

	I acci, a j	anti, interes
Si	ngular.	Plural.
N.	pa'-ter,	pa'-tres,
G.	pa'-tris,	pa'-trum,
	pa'-tri,	pat'ri-bus,
	pa'-trem,	pa'-tres,
	pa'-ter,	pa'-tres,
Ab.	pa'-tre.	pat'-ri-bus.

<sup>\*</sup> Pronounced ar'-she-um, noc'-she-um. See § 12.

ocanc, a scar, near			
Singular.	Plural.		
N. se-dī'-le			
G. se-dī'-lis			
D. se-di'-li,			
Ac. se-di'-le.			
V. se-di'-le,			
Ab. se-di'-li.	se-dil'-i-bus.		

Carmen, a verse, neut.		ļ	Ammai, an a	unui, nei
Singular.  N. car'-men, G. car'-mi-ni, D. car'-mi-ni, Ac. car'-men, V. car'-men,	Plural. car'-mi-na, car'-mi-num, car-min'-i-bus, car'-mi-na, car'-mi-na,	N. G. D. Ac. V.	ingular. ān'-ĭ-mal, an-i-mā'-lis, an-i-mā'-li, an'-ĭ-mal, an'-ĭ-mal,	Plural. an-i-ma'- an-i-mal' an-i-ma'- an-i-ma'-
Ab. car'-mi-ne.	car-min'-ĭ-bus.	Ab.	an-i-mā'-li.	an-i-mal
Iter, a jour	ney; neut.		Opus, wor	k; neut.

S	ingular.	Plural.
N.	ĭ'-ter,	i-tin'-ĕ-ra,
G.	i-tĭn'-ĕ-ris,	i-tin'-ĕ-rum,
D.	i-tin'-ĕ-ri,	it-i-ner´-ĭ-bus,
Ac.	i'-ter,	i-tin'-ĕ-ra,
V.	i'-ter,	i-tin'-ĕ-ra,
Ab.	i-tin -ĕ-re.	it-i-ner'-I-bus.

	Lapis, a stone; masc.			
s	ingular.	Plural.		
N.	la'-pis,	lap´-ĭ-des,		
G.	lap'-ĭ-dis,	lap´-ĭ-dum,		
D.	lap´-i-di,	la-pid'-i-bus,		
Ac.	lap'-i-dem,	lap -i-des,		
V.	la -pis,	lap'-i-des,		
Ab.	lap'-ĭ-de.	la-pid'i-bus.		

## Sĕdīle, a seat; neut. Virgo, a virgin; fem.

	0 '	,
	ingular.	Plural.
	vir'-go,	vir'-gi-nes,
	vir´-gĭ-nis,	vir'-gi-num,
	vir gi-ni,	vir-gin'-i-bus,
Ac.	vir gi-nem,	vir -gĭ-nes,
	vir'-go,	vir'-gi-nes,
Ab.	vir'-gi-ne.	vir-gin'-ĭ-bus.

## Animal an animal: neut.

Timmen, an animat, neuts			
	ingular.	Plural.	
N.	ăn'-ĭ-mal,	an-i-ma'-li-a,	
G.	an-i-mā´-lis,	an-i-ma´-li-um,	
D.		an-i-mal'-ĭ-bus.	
	an'-i-mal,	an-i-ma'-li-a,	
V.		an-i-ma´-li-a,	
Ab.	an-i-mā´-li.	an-i-mal'-i-bus.	

1 '	,
Singular.	Plural.
N. ŏ'-pus,	op'-ĕ-ra,
G. op'-ĕ-ris,	op'ě-rum,
D. op'-ĕ-ri,	o-per'-ĭ-bus,
Ac. o'-pus,	op'-ĕ-ra,
V. o'-pus,	op´-ĕ-ra,
Ab. op'-ĕ-re.	o-per'-i-bus.

ı		Caput, a n	eaa, neut.
	S	ingular.	Plural.
	N.	ca'-put,	cap'-i-ta,
	G.	cap'-i-tis,	cap'-i-tum,
	D.	cap´-ĭ-ti,	ca-pit'-i-bus,
	.1c.	ca'-put,	cap'-ĭ-ta,
	<i>V</i> .	ca'-put,	cap'-ĭ-ta,
	Ab.	cap'-i-te.	ca-pit'-ĭ-bus.

## Poëma, a poem; neut.

Singular.	Plural.
N. po-ë'-ma,	po-em'-ă-ta,
G. po-em'-ă-tis,	po-em'-ă-tum,
D. po-em'-ă-ti,	po-e-mat'-i-bus, or po-em'-ă-tis,
Ac. po-ē'-ma,	po-em'-ă-ta,
V. po-ē'-ma,	po-em'-ă-ta,
Ab. po-em'-à-te.	po-e-mat -i-bus, or po-em'-ă-tis.

## RULES FOR THE GENDER OF NOUNS OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

§ 58. Nouns whose gender is determined by their signification, according to the general rules, § 28—34, are not included in the following rules and excentions.

### MASCULINES.

Nouns ending in o, er, or, es increasing in the genitive, os, and n, are masculine; as,

sermo, speech; dölor, pain; flos, a flower; carcer, a prison; pes, a foot; canon, a rule.

#### Exceptions in O.

§ 59. 1. Abstract and collective nouns in io are feminine; as, ratio, reason; legio, a legion.

REM. 1. But numerals in io; as, binio, trinio, etc., except unio, unity, are masculine.

2. Nouns in do and go, of more than two syllables, are feminine; as, arundo, a reed; imāgo, an image. So also grando, hail. But comēdo, a glutton; unēdo, the arbute tree; and harpāgo, a grapplinghook, are masculine.

REM. 2. Margo, the brink of a river, is doubtful. Cupido, desire, is often masculine in poetry, but in prose is always feminine.
3. Ciro, flesh, and Greek nonns in o, are feminine; as, čcho, an echo. Būbo,

3. Căro, flesh, and Greek nouns in o, are feminine; as, ēcho, an echo. Būbo the owl, is once feminine, Virg. A. 4, 462.

## Exceptions in ER.

- § 60. 1. Laver, a water plant, and tüber, the tuber tree, are feminine, but when the latter denotes the fruit, it is masculine. Linter, a boat, is feminine, and once, in Tibulius, masculine. Siser, skirret, is neuter in the singular, but masculine in the plural.
- The following, in er, are neuter:—

Acer, a maple-tree.
Cadiwer, a deed body.
Cicer, a vetch.
Liser, a sourges.
Liser, assignatida.

Papiwer, a poppy.
Piper, pepper.
Siler, an osier.
Siler, an osier.
Ver, the spring.
Verber, a scowrge.
Zingther, gianger.

## Exceptions in OR.

\$ 61. Arbor, a tree, is feminine: ador, spelt; aquor, the sea; marmor, marble; and cor, the heart, are neuter.

## Exceptions in ES increasing in the genitive.

1. The following are feminine:-

Compes, a fetter. Quies, and Requies, rest. Teges, a mat. Inquies, restlessness. Merges, a sheaf of corn. Seges, growing corn.

Ales, a bird; comes, a companion; hospes, a guest; interpres, an interpreter; miles, a soldier; obses, a hostage; præses, a president; and satelles, a life-guard, are common, § 30. Es, brass, is neuter.

## Exceptions in OS.

3. Arbos, a tree; cos, a whetstone; dos, a dowry; eos, the morning; and rarely nêpos, a grandchild, are feminine; sacerdos, custos, and bos are common, § 80: ös, the mouth, and os, a bone, are neuter; as are also the Greek words épos, epic poetry; and mêlos, melody.

## Exceptions in N.

4. Nouns in men with four in n are neuter—glüten, glue; inguen, the groin; pollen, fine flour; and unguen, ointment.

5. Four nouns in on are feminine—acidon, a nightingale; halcyon, a king-fisher; tcon, am image; and sindon, muslin.

#### FEMININES.

§ 62. Nouns ending in as, es not increasing in the genitive, is, ys, aus, s preceded by a consonant, and x, are feminine; as,

atas, age; nubes, a cloud; aris, a bird; chlumys, a cloak; laus, praise; trabs, a beam; pax, peace.

## Exceptions in AS.

1. Mas, a male, ras, a surety, and as, a piece of money, or any unit divisible into twelve parts, are masculine. Greek nouns in as, antis, are also masculine; as, adiamas, adamant. So also Métas, the name of a river, § 28, 2. Arcus and Nomas are common.—2. Vas, a vessel, the indeclinable nouns, fas and nefus, and Greek nouns in as, ătis, are neuter; as, artocreas, a meat-pie; bucêras, a species of herb.

## Exceptions in ES not increasing in the genitive.

 Acináces, a scimitar, and côles or côlis, a stalk, are masculine. Antistes, palumbes, vites, and repres, are masculine or feminine. Citcoithes, hippomânes, nepenthes, and punáces, Greek words, are neuter.

## Exceptions in IS.

## § 63. 1. Latin nouns in nis are masculine or doubtful.

(1) Masc. Orinis, hair; iimis, fire; pānis, bread; mānes, (plur.), departed spirits.—(2.) Masc. or fem. Annis, a river; cinis, ashes; finis, an end; clanis, the humch; cănis, a dog; fănis, a rope. The plurals, cinères, the ashes of the dead, and fines, boundaries, are always masculine.

2. The following are common or doubtful:-

Anguis, a snake.
Callis, a path.
Canalis, a conduit pipe.
Contubernalis, a comrade.

Corbis, a basket.
Pollis, fine flour.
Pulvis, dust.
Scröbis, a ditch.

Tigris, a tiger. Torquis, a chain.

The following are masculine:—

Axis, an axle.
Aquālis, a water-pot.
Cassis, a net.
Caulis, or { a stalk.

Cenchris, a serpent.
Collis, a hill.
Cucănais, a cucumber.
Ensis, a sword.
Fascis, a bundle.

Follis, a pair of bellows. Fustis, a club. Glis, a dormouse. Lupis, a stone. Lemures, pl., spectres. Mensis, a month. Mugilis, a mullet. Orbis, a circle. Piscis, a fish. Postis, a post. Quiris, a Roman. Samnis, a Samnite. Sanguis, blood. Sēmis, or Semissis. Bessis, Centussis, Decussis,

Tressis,

compounds of as.

Sentis, a brier. Sodālis, a companion. Torris, a firebrand. Unguis, a nail. Vectis, a lever. Vermis, a worm. Vomis, a ploughshare.

 Names of male beings, rivers, and months in is are masculine; as, Dis, Pluto; Anūbis, an Egyptian deity; Tigris, the river Tigris; Aprilis, April. See § 28.

## Exceptions in YS.

Names of rivers and mountains in ys are masculine; as, Halys, Othrys. See \$ 28, 2 and 3

## Exceptions in S preceded by a consonant.

1. Dens, a tooth; fons, a fountain; mons, a mountain; and pons, a bridge, are masculine. So also are auceps, a bird-catcher; chalybs, steel; cliens, a client; ellops, a kind of fish; epops, a hoopoe; gryps, a griffin; hydrops, the dropsy; merops, a kind of bird. Rudens, a rope, is masculine and very rarely feminine.

2. The following nouns also are masculine, viz. (a.) these which are properly adjectives-confluens and torrens, scil. ammis; occidens and oriens, scil. sol; (b.) compounds of dens-tridens, a trident, and bidens, a two-pronged mattock; but bidens, a sheep, is feminine; (c.) the parts of as ending in ns; as, sextans,

quadrans, triens, dodrans, and dextans.

## The following are common or doubtful:—

Adeps, grease. Seps, a kind of serpent. Serpens, a serpent. Forceps, pincers. Scrobs, a ditch. Stirps, the trunk of a tree.

Animans an animal, which is properly an adjective, is masculine, feminine, or neuter.

## Exceptions in X.

1. AX. Anthrax, cinnabar; corax, a raven; cordax, a kind of dance; dropax, an ointment; styrax, a kind of tree; thorax, a breast-plate; and

Atax, the river Aude, are masculine; limax, a snail, is common.

 EX. Nouns in ez are masculine, except fizz, forfez, tez, nez, prez, (obsolete in nom. and gen. sing), and supeller, which are feminine; to which add (§ 29) carez, itez, marcz, peller, and viez. rarely masculine or feminine. Alex, a fish-pickle; cortex, bark; imbrex, a gutter-tile; obex, a bolt; and silex, a flint, are doubtful: senex, an old person; grex, a herd; rumex, sorrel; and pumex, pumice-stone, are masculine and very rarely feminine.

3. IX. Culix, a cup; fornix, an arch; phænix, a kind of bird; and spādix, a palm-branch, are masculine: lărix, the larch-tree; perdix, a partridge; and vārix, a swollen vein, are masculine or feminine.

4. OX. Box and sox, names of fishes, are masculine.

5. UX. Trādux, a vine-branch, is masculine.

6. YX. Bombyx, a slik-worm; cālyx, the bud of a flower; coccyx, a cuckoo; byxx, a wild goat, and names of mountains in yx, as Eryx, are masculine.

Onux, a box made of the onyx-stone, and sardonyx, a precious stone; also, calx, the heel, and calx, lime; lynx, a lynx, and sardyx, a kind of color, are reservibles of foreigns. masculine or feminine.

NOTE. Bombyx, when it signifies silk, is doubtful.

7. Quincunx, septunx, decunx, deunx, parts of as, are masculine.

#### NEUTERS.

§ 66. Nouns ending in a, e, i, y, c, l, t, ar, ur, us, and men, are neuter: as.

diadėma, a crown; rėte, a net; hydromėli, mead; lac, milk; vectīgal, revenue; ciput, the head; calcar, a spur; guttur, the throat; pectus, the breast; and flumen, a river.

## Exceptions in L, C, and E.

Mögil, a mullet, and sol, the sun, are masculine. Sall, salt, is masculine or neuter, in the singular; but, in the plural, it is always masculine. Lac is neuter and rarely masculine. Prenaste is neuter, and once in Virgil femione.

## Exceptions in AR and UR.

§ 67. Furfur, bran; sălar, a trout; turtur, a turtle dove; and vultur, a vulture, are masculine.

## Exceptions in US.

- 1. Lépus, a hare; and Greek nouns in pus ( $\pi v \tilde{v} s$ ), are masculine; as, tripus, a tripod; but  $lag \tilde{o} pus$ , a kind of bird, is feminine.
- 2. Nouns in us, having ūtis, or ūdis, in the genitive, are feminine; as, juventus, youth; incus, an anvil.
- 3. Pecus, -ūdis, a brute animal, and tellus, the earth, are feminine. Pessinus, and Selinus, names of towns, are also feminine. See § 29.
  - Grus, a erane; mus, a mouse; and sus, a swine, are masculine or feminine.
     Rhus, sumach, is masculine, and rarely feminine.

# Rules for the Oblique Cases of Nouns of the Third Declension.

## GENITIVE SINGULAR.

§ 68. 1. The genitive singular of the third declension of Latin nouns always ends in is, in Greek nouns it sometimes ends in os and us.

#### Α.

2. Nouns in a form their genitive in ătis; as, di-a-dê'-ma, di-a-dem'-ă-tis, a crown; dog'-ma, dog'-mă-tis, an opinion.

#### E.

3. Nouns in e change e into is; as, re-te, re-tis, a net; se-di'-le, se-di'-lis, a scat.

#### I.

4. Nouns in i are of Greek origin, and are generally indeclinable; but hydrom'-č-li, mead, has hyd-ro-mel'-ž-tis in the genitive.

#### O.

§ 69. Nouns in o form their genitive in onis; as, ser'-mo, ser-mo'-nis, speech; pa'-vo, pa-vo'-nis, a peacock.

REMARK. Patrials in o have onis; as, Macedo, onis; but some have onis, as, Eburones, etc. See 3d exception to increments in O, § 287.

Exc. 1. Nouns in do and go form their genitive in inis; as, a-run'-do, a-run'-di-nis, a reed; i-mā'-go, i-mag'-ĭ-nis, an image.

But four dissyllables—cūdo, ūdo, ligo and mango; and three trisyllables—comēdo, unēdo, and harpāgo, have ōnis.

Exc. 2. The following nouns, also, have this:—Apollo; homo, a man; nemo, nobody; and turbo, a whirlwind.

Caro, flesh, has, by syncope, carnis. Anio, the name of a river, has Aniënis; Nerio, the wife of Mars, Nerienis; from the old nominatives, Anien, and No.

Exc. 3. Some Greek nouns in o form their genitive in ūs, and their other cases singular, in o; as, Dido, gen. Didos, dat. Dido, etc.; Argo, -us; but they are sometimes declined regularly; as, Dido, Didous.

#### Y.

Greek nouns in y have their genitive in yos; as, misy, misyos, or, by contraction, misys.

#### C.

§ 70. The only nouns in c are  $\bar{a}'$ -lcc, a-le'-cis, fish-brine, and lac, lac'-tis, milk.

## L. N. R.

Nouns in l, n, and r, form their genitive by adding is ; as, con'-sul, con'-sū-lis, a consul; co'-non, con'-o'-nis, a rule; ho'-nor, ho-no'-ris, honor.

So, An'-I-mal, an-i-mā'-lis, an animal, V1'-gil, vig'-I-lis, a watchman. Ty'-tan, Ti-tā'-nis, Titan. Si'-ren, Si-re'-nis, a Siren. Del'-phin, del-phi'-nis, a dolphin.

Cal'-car, cal-cā'-ris, a spur. Car'-cer, car'-cē-ris, a prison. A'-mor, a-mō'-ris, love. Gut'-tur, gut'-tū-ris, the throat. Mar'-tyr, mar'-tŷ-ris, a martyr.

## Exceptions in L.

Fel, gall, and mel, honey, double l before is, making fellis and mellis.

## Exceptions in N.

§ 71. 1. Neuters in en form their genitive in inis; as, flu-men, flu-mi-nis, a river; glu-ten, glu-ti-nis, glue.

The following masculines, also, form their genitive in Inis:—oscen, a bird which fore-boded by its notes; pecten, a comb; tibicen, a piper; and tubicen, a trumpeter.

 Some Greek nouns in on form their genitive in ontis; as, Laomèdon, Laomedontis. Some in in and gn add is or os; as, Trāchin, or Trāchyn, Trachinis or Trachynos.

## Exceptions in R.

 Nouns in ter drop e in the genitive; as, pā-ter, pa-tris, a father. So also imber, a shower, and names of months in ber; as, October, Octobris. But crāter, a cup; sōter, a savior; and lăter, a brick, retain e in the genitive.

Far, a kind of corn, has farris; hēpar, the liver, hepātis; Lar or Lars,
 Joseph J

3. These four in ur have oris in the genitive:—ĕbur, ivory; fēmur, the thigh; jēcur, the liver; rōbur, strength.

Femur has also feminis, and jecur, jecinoris, and jocinoris.

#### AS.

§ 72. Nouns in as form their genitive in ātis; as, α'-tas, α-tā'-tis, age; pi'-ĕ-tas, pi-e-tā'-tis, piety.

Exc. 1. As has assis; mās, a male, māris; vas, a surety, vādis; and vās, a vessel, vāsis. Anas, a duck, has anātis.

Exc. 2. Greek nouns in as form their genitive necording to their gender; the masculines in actis, the ferminines in actis or acts, and the neuters in acts; s, actimas, -antis, adamant; tampas, -actis, a lamp; Pullas, -actis or actos; buckers, acts, a species of herb. Arcus, an Arcadian, and Nomas, a Numidian, which are of the common gender, form their genitive in acts. Melas, the name of a river, has Melais.

#### ES.

\$ 73. 1. Nouns in es form their genitive by changing es into is, tits, etis, or ētis; as, rū'-pes, ru'-pis, a rock; mī'-les, mīl'-ī-tis, a soldier; se'-ges, seg'-e-tis, growing corn; qui'-es, qui-e'-tis, rest.

REMARK. A few Greek proper names in es (gen. is) sometimes form their genitive in ei, or, by contraction, i, after the second declension; as, Athilles, is, ei or -i: and a few in æ after the first declension; as, Orestes, is or æ.

2. Those which make itis are,

Ales, a bird.
Ames, a fowler's staff.
Antistes, a priest.
Caspes, a twyf.
Comes, a companion.
Eques, a horsemau.
Fomes, touchwood.

Gurges, a whirlpool.
Hospes, a guest.
Limes, a limit.
Merges, a sheaf of corn.
Miles, a soldier.
Palmes, a vine-branch.
Pedes, a foot-soldier.

Poples, the ham.
Satelles, a lifeguard.
Stipes, the stock of a tree.
Termes, an olive bough.
Trāmes, a by-path.
Vēles, a skirmisher.

- The following have êtis:—abies, a fir-tree; aries, a ram; indiges, a man deified; interpres, an interpreter; paries, a wall; séges, a com-field; and têges, a mat.
- 4. The following have ris:—Cibes; Cres, a Cretan; libes, a caldron; magnes, a loadstone; quies and requies, rest; inquies, restlessness; and libes (used only in acc. and abl.), tapestry.—Some Greek proper names have either tis or is in the genitive; as, Chrömes, -tis, or -is. Dires, -tis, or -is.

Exc. 1. Obses, a hostage, and præses, a president, have idis. Hêres, an heir, and merces, a reward, have idis; pes, a foot, and its compounds, have idis.

Exc. 2. Cires has Cereris; bes, bessis; præs, prædis; and æs, æris.

#### IS.

§ 74. Nouns in is have their genitive the same as the nominative; as, au'-ris, au'-ris, the car; a'-vis, a'-vis, a bird.

Exc. 1. The following have the genitive in eris:—cinis, ashes; pulvis, dust; vomis or vomer, a ploughshare. Cucumis, a cucumber, has eris and rarely is.

Exc. 2. The following have idis: — căpis, a cup; cassis, a helmet; cuspis, a point; lūpis, a stone; and promulsis, an antepast.

Exc. 3. Two have inis: -pollis, fine flour, and sanguis or sanguen, blood.

Exc. 4. Four have itis:—Dis, Pluto; lis, strife; Quiris, a Roman; and Samnis, a Samnite.

Exc. 5. Glis, a dormouse, has gliris.

#### GREEK NOUNS.

- 1. Greek nouns in is, whose goultive ends in ios or cos. (μc or ωc), form their genitive in Latin in is; as (a.) verbals in sis; as, basis, mathèsis, etc. (b.) compounds of polis (π̄bλt); as, metropolis, Nappòlis, etc.; and (c.) a few other proper names, as Charybdis, Lachèsis, Syrtis, etc. In some nouns of this class the Greek genitive is sometimes found; as, Nemesios. Nemesios.
- Greek nouns in is, whose Greek genitive is in Idos (18cc), form their Latin genitive
  in Idis; as, agis, aspis, ephemēris, pyrāmis, tyrannis, Ænēis, Iris, Nerēis, etc. Tigris
  has both is and Idis; and in some other words of this class later writers use is instead
  of Idis.
  - Charis has Charitis; Salamis, Salaminis, and Simois, Simoentis.

#### OS.

§ 75. Nouns in ōs form their genitive in ōris or ōtis; as, flos, flō'-ris, a flower; nĕ-pos, ne-pō'-tis, a grandchild.

The following have oris :-

Flos, a flower. Labos or labor, labor. Os, the mouth. Glos, a husband's sister. Lepos or lepor, wit. Ros, dew.

Honos or honor, honor. Mos, a custom.

Arbos or arbor, a tree, has ŏris.

The following have ōtis:—

Dos, a dowry.

Cos, a whetstone. Monoceros, a unicorn.

Monoceros, a unicorn. Nepos, a grandchild. Rhinoceros, a rhinoceros. Sacerdos, a priest.

Exc. 1. Custos, a keeper, has custodis; bos, an ox, boris; and os, a bone, ossis. Exc. 2. Some Greek nouns in os have ois in the genitive; as, hiros, a herof Minos; Tros, a Trojan; and some Greek neuters in os are used in the third declension in the nominative and accusative only; as, Argus, cétos, épos, mêlos.

#### US.

- § **76.** 1. Nouns in ŭs form their genitive in ĕris or ŏris; as, gĕ-nus, gen'-ĕ-ris, a kind; ten'-pus, ten'-pŏ-ris, time.
- Those which make ēris are, ōcus, (chaff), fachus, fānus, gēnus, glōmus, kātus, mūnus, ôlus, ōnus, ōpus, pondus, rūdus, scēlus, rūdus, ulcus, vellus, riscus and vulnus. In early writers pignus has sometimes pignēris.
- 3. Those which make oris are, corpus, décus, dedécus, facinus, finus, frigus, lépus, litus, nomus, pectus, pocus, penus, pignus, stercus, tempus, and tergus.

Exc. 1. These three in ūs have ū·lis:—ineūs, an anvil; pālūs, a morass; and subseūs, a dove-tail. Pēcūs, a brute animal, has pecūdis.

Exc. 2. These five have ūtis:—juventūs, youth; sùlūs, safety; senectūs, old age; servilūs, slavery; virtūs, virtue.

Exc. 3. Monosyllables in ūs have ūris; as, crus, the leg; jus, right; jus, broth; mus, a monse; pus, matter; rus, the country; tus, frankincense; except grus, and sus, which have gruis, and suis; and rhus, which has rhois or roris. Tettus, the earth, has tellūris; and Ligus or Ligar, a Ligurian, has Ligūris.

Exc. 4. Fraus, fraud, and laus, praise, have fraudis, laudis.

Exc. 5. Greek nouns in pās (700) have odis; as, tripus, tripodis, a tripod; Œdipus, -odis; but this is sometimes of the second declension.

Exc. 6. Some Greek names of cities in us have untis; as, Amáthus, Amathuntis. So Trapézus, Opus, Pessinus, and Selinus.

Exc. 7. Greek nouns ending in eus are all proper names, and have their genitive in eos; as, Orpheus, -cos. But these nouns are found also in the second declension; as, Orpheus, -ci or-1. Cf. § 64, 6.

#### YS.

§ 77. 1. Nouns in ys are Greek, and make their genitive in \(\vec{y}\)is (contracted \(\vec{y}\)s), or, as in Greek, \(y\)os (\(y\)\)c; as,

Côtys, gen. Cotyis or Cotys; Tethys, -yis or yos. So Atys, Cipys, Erinnys, Halys, Othrys. A few have ydis; as, chlamys, chlamydis.

## S preceded by a consonant.

2. Nouns in s, with a consonant before it, form their genitive by changing s into is or tis; as, trabs, tră-bis, a beam; hi-ems, hi-ems, winter; pars, par-tis, a part; frons, fron-tis, the forehead.

(1.) Those in bs, ms, and ps; as, scrobs, hiems, stirps, change s into is; except gryps, a griffin, which has grÿphis.

REMARK. Compounds in ceps from capio have ipis; as, princeps, princeps, a prince. But auceps has aucupis.

(2.) Those in ls, ns, and rs, as, puls, gens, ars, change s into tis.

Exc. 1. The following in ns change s into dis:—frons, foliage: glans, an acorn; juglans, a walnut; lens, a nit; and libripens, a weigher.

Exc. 2. Tiryns, a town of Argolis, has Tirynthis in the genitive.

### T.

§ 78. 1. Nouns in t form their genitive in itis. They are, căput, the head, gen. cap'-ī-tis; and its compounds, occiput and sinciput.

#### X.

- 2. Nouns in x form their genitive by resolving x into cs or gs, and inserting i before s; as, vox (vocs) vo-cis, the voice; lex (leys) le-gis, a law.
- (1.) Latin nouns in ax have ācis; as, fornax, fornācis, except fax, fācis. Most Greek nouns in ax have ācis; as, thōrax, thorācis; a few have ācis; as, côrax, corācis; and Greek names of men in nax have nactis; as, Astyānax, Astyānactis.
- (2.) Nouns in ex have icis; as, jūdex, judicis; obex has obicis or objicis; and vibex, vibicis. Nex, prex, (nom. obs.), résec and fenisex have écis; diex, nar-diex, and rerrex have écis, and fiex, fecis. Lex and rex have égis; aquilex and grex have égis; rémex has remigis; sènex, sènis; and supellex, supellectilis.

(3) Nouns in ix have icis; as, cervix, cerricis; and less frequently icis; as, collix, callicis. But mix has nivis; strix, foreign names of men, and gentile nouns in rix have igis; as, Biliarix, Dumnorix, etc.

(4.) Nouns in ox have ōcis; as, vox, vōcis; but Cappadox has Cappadocis;

Allobrox, Allobrogis; and nox, noctis.

(5.) Of nouns in ux, crux, dux, trādux, and nux have úcis; lux and Pollux, ūcis.—Conjux has conjúgis, frux (nom. obs.) frūgis, and faux, faucis.

(6.) Yz, a Greek termination, has ycis, ycis, or ygis, ygis. Onyx and sardönyx, in which x is equivalent to chs (§ 3, 2) have ychis; as, ŏnyx, onychis.

#### DATIVE SINGULAR.

§ 79. The dative singular ends in i; as, sermo, dat. sermoni.

Anciently it also ended in e; as, morte dătus. Varro in Gellius. So ære for æri, Cic. and Liv.; and jüre for jüri. Liv.

#### ACCUSATIVE SINGULAR.

- (a.) The accusative singular of all neuter nouns is like the nominative.
- (b.) The accusative singular of masculines and feminines, ends in em. Yet some Latin nouns in is, which do not increase in the genitive, have im, and some Greck nouns have im, in, or a.
- Many proper names in is, denoting places, rivers, or gods, have the accusative singular in im: as, Hispitis, Tiberis, Anabis; so also Albis, Athesis, Batis, Arar or Araris, Bibbits, Apis, Osiris, Syetis, etc. These sometimes, also, make the accusative in in; as, Albin. Scaldis has in and cm, and Liris, im, in, and cm. Liger has Ligerian.
  - 2. The following also have the accusative in im:-

Amussis, a mason's rule.

Būris, a plough-tail.

Cannābis, hemp.

Cucūmis, (gen. -is), a cucumber. Secūris, au avæ.

Mephītis, fond air.

Pelvis, a b isin.

Rāvis, hoarseness.

Tussis, a cough.

Vis, strength.

3. These have im, and sometimes em:-

Febris, a fever. Puppis, the stern. Restis, a rope. Turris, a tower.

But these have em, and rarely im:-

Bipennis, a battle-axe. Nāvis, a ship. Sementis, a sowing. Clāvis, a key. Præsepis, a stall. Strigtlis, a flesh-brush.

- 4. Lens and pars have rarely lentim and partim; and cratim from crates, is found in Plautus.
- 5. Early writers formed the accusative of some other nouns in im.

## Accusative of Greek Nouns.

- § **SO.** The accusative singular of masculine and feminine Greek nouns sometimes retains the Greek terminations in and a, but often ends, as in Latin, in em or im.
- I. Masculine and feminine Greek nouns, whose genitive increases in is or os, impure, that is, with a consonant going before, have their accusative in em or a; as, lampas, lampādis (Greek .5x), lampāda; chlāmys, chlamydis, chlarydem, or -9da; Helicon, Heliconis, Iteliana.

REMARK. In like manner these three, which have is pure in the genitive— $Tr\bar{o}s$ ,  $Tr\bar{o}em$ , and  $Tr\bar{o}a$ , a Trojan;  $h\bar{c}ros$ , a hero; and  $M\bar{m}os$ , a king of Crete.— $A\bar{c}r$ , the air; adher, the sky; delphin, a dolphin; and pean, a hymn, have usually a; as,  $a\bar{c}ra$ , adhera, delphina,  $pea\bar{m}a$ . Pan, a god, has only a.

Exc. 1. Masculines in is, whose genitive increases in is or os impure, have their accusative in im or in; sometimes in idem; Paris, Paridis; Parim, or Paridem.

Exc. 2. Feminines in is, increasing impurely in the genitive, though they usually follow the rule, have sometimes in or in; as, Elis, Elidis; Elin or Elidem. So tigris, gen. is or idis; acc. tigrin or tigrin.

II. Masculine and feminine Greek nouns in is not increasing, and in ys, gen. yos, form their accusative by changing the s of the nominative into m or n; as, Charybdis, (gen. Lat. -is, Gr. £at.), acc. Charybdim or -in; Hâlys, -yis or -yos, Halym or -yn. So rhus, gen. rhois, has rhun or rhum.

III. Proper names ending in the diphthong eus, gen. či and čos, have the accusative in ea; as, Thèseus, Thesea; Tydeus, Tydea. See § 54, 5.

IV. Some Greek proper names in es, whose genitive is in is, have in Latin, along with the accusative in em, the termination en, as if of the first declension; as, Achillen; Xeines, Xennen, Sopholeles, Sopholen. Cl. § 45, 1. Some also, which have either êtis or is in the genitive, have, besides êtem, êta, or em, the termination en; as, Chrèmes, Thâles.

#### VOCATIVE SINGULAR.

## § 81. The vocative is like the nominative.

REMARK. Many Greek nouns, however, particularly proper names, drop s of the nominative to form the vocative; as, Daphnis, Daphni: Tethys, Tethy: Melampus, Melampus, Orpheus, Orpheu. Proper names in es (gen. is) sometimes have a vocative in ê, after the first declension; as, Socrates, Socrate. § 46, 1.

#### ABLATIVE SINGULAR.

§ 82. The ablative singular commonly ends in e.

Exc. 1. (a.) Neuters in e, al, and ar, have the ablative in i; as, sedile, sedili; animal, animāli; calcar, calcāri.

(b.) But names of towns in e, and the following neuters in ar, have e in the ablative; viz. bucar, an herb; far, corn; hipar, the liver; jabar, a sunbeam; nectar, nectar; par, a pair; sal, salt. Rete, a net, has either e or i; and mare, the sea, has sometimes in poetry mare in the ablative.

Exc. 2. (a.) Nouns which have im alone, or both im and in in the accusative, and names of months in er or is, have i in the ablative; as, vis, vim, vi; Tibéris, -im, i; December, Decembri; Aprilis, Aprili.

(b.) But Bætis, cannābis, and sināpis, have e or i. Tigris, the tiger, has tigride; as a river it has both Tigride and Tigri.

Exc. 3. (a.) Nouns which have em or im in the accusative, have their ablative in e or i; as, turris, turre or turri.

(b.) So Elis, acc. Elidem und Elin, has Elide or Eli. But restis, and most Greck nouns with idis in the genitive, have e only; as, Pāris, -idis, -ide.

Exc. 4. (a.) Adjectives in is, used as nouns, have commonly i in the ablative, but sometimes e; as, fimiliaris, a friend; matalis, a birthday; sodalis, a companion; trirāmis, a trireme.—Participles in ns, used as nouns, have commonly e in the ablative, but continens has i.

(b.) When adjectives in is become proper names, they always have e; as, Juvenālis, Juvenāle. Aff inis and addits have generally e; as have always juvenis, a youth; ridis, a rod; and rodicris, a bird.

Exc. 5. (a.) The following, though they have only em in the accusative, have e or i in the ablative, but most of them have oftener e than i:—

Amnis,	Collis,	Ignis,	Pars,	Supellex,
Anguis,	Convallis,	Imber.	Postis.	Tridens,
Avis.	- Corbis,	Mugilis,	Pŭgil,	Unguis,
Bīlis,	Finis.	Orbis,	Sordes,	Vectis,
Cīvis.	Fustis,	Ovis,	Sors,	Vesper.
Classia	,	,	,	

(b.) Occiput has only i, and rus has either e or i; but rure commonly signifies from the country, and ruri, in the country. Mel has rarely i.

(c.) So also names of towns, when denoting the place where any thing is said to be, or to be done, have the ablative in it. as, Carthagini, at Carthage, o, Anxivi and Lacedemoni, and, in the most ancient writers, many other nouns occur with this termination in the ablative. Canalle has i, and very rarely e.

Exc. 6. Nouns in ys, which have ym or ym in the accusative, have their ablative in ye or y; as, Atys, Atye, or Aty.

#### NOMINATIVE PLURAL.

- § S3. I. The nominative plural of masculines and feminines ends in es; as, sermones, rūpes:—but neuters have a, and those whose ablative singular ends in i only, or in e and i, have ia; as, cūput, capīta; sedile, sedilia; rēte, retia. Aplustre has both a and ia.
- Some Greek neuters in os have ē in the nominative plural; as, mēlos; nom. plural, mele; (in Greek μέλεα, by contraction μέλλη). So Tempe.

#### GENITIVE PLURAL.

- II. The genitive plural commonly ends in um; sometimes in ium.
- Nouns which, in the ablative singular, have i only, or both e and i, make the genitive plural in ium; as, sedile, sedili, sedilium; turris, turre or turri, turrium.
- 2. Nouns in es and is, which do not increase in the genitive singular, have ium; as, nūbes, nubium; hostis, hostium.

Exc. Cinis, juvėnis, fūris, magilis, prūles, strues, and vātes, have um; so oftener have āpis, strigilis, and volucris; less frequently mensis, sēdes, and, in the poets only, ambāges, cades, clādes, vepres, and culestis.

3. Monosyllables ending in two consonants have ium in the genitive plural; as, urbs, urbium; gens, gentium; arx, arcium.

Exc. Lynx, sphinx, and ops (nom. obsolete) have um.

Most monosyllables in s and x pure have um, but the following have ium; dos, mas, dis, lis, os (osis), fuux, (nom. obs.) nix, nox, strix, vis, generally fraus and mus; so also fur and rand rand sometimes lar.

4. Nouns of two or more syllables, in ns or rs, and names of nations in as, have commonly ium, but sometimes um; as, cliens, clientium or clientum; Arpinas, Arpinatium.

- (1.) Other nouns in as generally have um, but sometimes ium; as, ætas, ætātum or ætatium. Penātes and optimātes have usually ium.
- 5. The following have ium:—căro, compes, linter, imber, ûter, venter, Samnis, Quiris, and usually Insuber. Fornax and palus have sometimes ium.
- 6. Greek nouns have generally um; as, gigas, gigantum; Arabs, Arūbum; Thraz, Thrācum;—but a few, used as titles of books, have sometimes ön; as, Epigramma, epigrammātön; Metamorphösis, -eön. The patrial Maleön also is found in Curtins, 4, 13.
- REMARK 1. Bos has boum in the genitive plural.

REM. 2. Nouns which want the singular, form the genitive plural as if they were complete; as, mānes, manium; ceelles, ceelium; ilia, iliam; as if from mānis, ceeles, and ile. So also names of feasts in alin; as, Saturnalia, Saturnalium; but these have sometimes orum after the second declension. Ales has sometimes, by epenthesis, alituum. See § 322, 5

#### DATIVE AND ABLATIVE PLURAL.

## § 84. The dative and ablative plural end in Thus.

- Exc. I. Bos has bobus and bubus, by contraction, for bordhus; sus has subus by syncope, for subbus. § 322, 5, and 4.
- Exc. 2. Greek nouns in ma have the dative and ablative plural more frequently in is than in ibus; as, poëma, poematis, or poematibus.
- Exc. 3. The poets sometimes form the dative plural of Greek nouns, that increase in the genitive, in si, and, before a vowel, in sin; as, herois, heroidis; heroisi, or heroisin. Ovid. So in Quintilian, Metamorphosési.

#### ACCUSATIVE PLURAL.

- § 85. The accusative plural ends, like the nominative, in  $\bar{e}s$ ,  $\bar{a}$ ,  $i\bar{a}$ .
- Exc. 1. The accusative plural of masculines and feminines, whose genitive plural ends in ium, anciently ended in Is or  $\overline{e}_{i}$ s, instead of  $\hat{e}_{i}$ s, as, partes, gen. partium, acc. partes or partes.
- Exc. 2. Greek masculines and feminines, whose genitive increases in is or os impure, have their accusative in as; as, lumpas, lampaidis, lumpadas. So also kėros, herõis, herõis, and some barbarian names of nations have a similar form; as, Brigantus, Allobrògas.

Jupiter, and vis, strength, are thus declined :-

Singular.	Singular.	Plural.
N. Ju'-pi-ter,	N. vis,	vī'-res,
G. Jŏ'-vis,	G. vis,	vir'-i-um,
D. Jŏ'-vi,	D. —	vir'-ĭ-bus,
Ac. Jo'-vem,	Ac. vim,	vi'-res,
V. Ju'-pi-ter,	V. vis,	vi'-res,
Ab. Jŏ'-ve.	Ab. vi.	vir'-I-bus.

§ 86. The following table exhibits the principal forms of Greek nouns of the third declension:—

	Nom.	Gen.	Dat.	Acc.	Voc.	Abl.
S.	Lampas,	{ -ădis, } -ădos, }	-ădi,	{ -ădem, } -ăda, }	-as,	-ăde.
Pl.	-ădes,	-ădum,	-adĭbus,	}-ădes, } }-ădas, }	-ădes,	-adĭbus.
S.	Hēros,	-ōis,	-ōi,	} -ōem, }	-os,	-ōe.
Pl.	-ōes,	-ōum,	-oĭbus,	{ -ōes, } -ōas, }	-ōes,	-oĭbus.
	Chĕlys,	{ - ỹis, } { ỹos, }	-ği,	{-ym, }	-у,	-ğe or y.
	Poësis,	\ \ -is, -ios, - \ \ -ĕos, \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \	-i,	{ -im, }	-i <b>,</b>	-i.
	Achilles,	{ -is, -ei, -i, } -ĕos, }	-i,	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} -\mathrm{em,} \\ -\mathrm{\breve{e}a,\bar{e}n,} \end{array} \right\}$	-es, -ē,	-е <i>or</i> -і.
	Orpheus,	-ĕos,	-ĕi,		-eu,	See § 54.
-	Aër, Didō,	-ĕris, -ūs,	-ĕri,	-ĕra,	-er,	-ĕre.
	Dido,	-us,	-ō,	-õ,	-ō,	-ō.

## FOURTH DECLENSION.

§ 87. Nouns of the fourth declension end in us and u. Those in us are masculine; those in u are neuter, and, except in the genitive, are indeclinable in the singular.

Nouns of this declension are thus declined :-

Fruct	us, fruit.	Cornu,	a horn.
Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	
N. frue'-tŭs, G. frue'-tūs,	fruc'-tūs, fruc'-tu-ŭm,	N. cor'-nū, G. cor'-nūs,	cor'-nu-ă, cor'-nu-ŭm,
D. frue'-tu-i,	frue'-tĭ-bŭs,	D. cor'-nū,	cor'-nĭ-bŭs,
Ac. frue'-tum, V. frue'-tus,	fruc'-tūs, fruc'-tūs,	Ac. cor'-nū, V. cor'-nū,	cor'-nu-ă, cor'-nu-ă,
Ab. frue'-tū.	fruc'-tĭ-bŭs.	Ab. cor'-nū.	cor'-nĭ-bắs.

## Iu like manner decline

Can'-tus, a song.
Cur'-rus, a chariot.

Ex-er'-ci-tus, an army.

#### EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER.

## § 88. 1. The following are feminine:-

Acus, a needle. Ficus, a fig. Porticus, a gallery. Domus, a house. Manus, a hand. Tribus, a tribe.

Colus, a distaff, and the plurals Quinqualrus, a feast of Minerva, and Idus, the Ides, are also feminine. So noctu, by night, found only in the ablative singular Pēnus, a store of provisions, when of the fourth declension, is masculine or feminine. Sciens, sex, is neuter; see § 94. Spiceus, a den, is masculine and rarely feminine or neuter.

2. Some personal appellatives, and names of trees, are feminine by signification: as.

Anus, nărus, socrus;—cornus, hurus, and quercus. Myrtus also is feminine and rarely masculine. See § 29, 1 and 2.

## EXCEPTIONS IN DECLENSION.

§ 89. Dŏnus, a house, is partly of the fourth declension, and partly of the second. It is thus declined:—

Singular.	Plural.
N. do'-mūs,	do'-mūs,
<li>G. do'-mūs, or do'-mī,</li>	dom'-u-um, or do-mo'-rum,
D. dom'-u-i, or do'-mō,	dom'-ĭ-būs,
Ac. do'-mŭm,	do'-mūs, or do'-mōs,
V. do'-mùs,	do'-mūs,
<i>Ab.</i> do'-mö.	dom'-i-bŭs.

- /(a.) Domūs, in the genitive, signifies, of a house; domī commonly signifies, at home. The ablative domu is found in Plantus, and in ancient inscriptions. In the genitive and accusative plural the forms of the second declension are more used than those of the fourth.
- (b) Cornus, a cornel-tree; ficus, a fig. or a fig-tree; luurus, a laurel; and myrtus, a myrtle, are sometimes of the second declension. Pénus is of the second, third or fourth declension.
- (c.) Some nouns in u have also forms in us and um; as, cornu, cornus, or cornum. Adjectives, compounds of manus, are of the first and second declensions.

REMARK 1. Nouns of this declension anciently belonged to the third, and were formed by contraction, thus:—

Singular.	Plural.
N. fructus,	frutuës, üs,
G. fructuis, -i	is, fructuŭm, -ŭm,
D. fructui, -ū.	fructuībūs, -ubus, or -Ibus,
Ac. fructuem,	-ŭm, fructues, üs,
V. fructus,	fructues, -ūs,
Ab. fructue ū	

- 2. The genitive singular in is is sometimes found in ancient authors; as, anuis, Ter. A genitive in i, after the second declension, also occurs; as, sendtus, sendit; tumulus, tumului. Sull.
- 3. The contracted form of the dative in u is not often used; yet it sometimes occurs, especially in Casar, and in the poets.
  - 4. The contracted form of the genitive plural in um rarely occurs.
- 5. The following nouns have *ubus* in the dative and ablative plural:—

Acus, a needle. Artus, a joint. Partus, a birth. Spècus, a den. Arcus, a bow. Lácus, a lake. Pècn, a flock. Tribus, a tribe.

Gēnu, a knee; portus, a harbor; tonitrus, thunder; and vēru, a spit, have ibus or ūbus.

#### FIFTH DECLENSION.

§ 90. Nouns of the fifth declension end in  $\bar{e}s$ , and are of the feminine gender.

They are thus declined: -

Res, a thing.		Dies, a	Dies, a day.	
Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.	
N. rēs,	rēs,	N. di'-ēs,	di'-ēs,	
G. rĕ'-ī,	rē´-rŭm,	G. di-ē'-ī,	di-ē'-rum,	
D. rě'-i,	rē'-bŭs,	D. di-ē'-i,	di-ē'-bŭs,	
Ac. rem,	rēs,	Ac. di'-ĕm,	di'-ēs,	
V. rēs,	rēs,	V. di'-ēs,	di'-ēs,	
Ab. rē.	rē'-bŭs.	Ab. di'-c.	di-ē'-bŭs.	

REMARK. Nouns of this declension, like those of the fourth, seem to have belonged originally to the third declension.

#### EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER.

Dies, a day, is masculine or feminine in the singular, and always
masculine in the plural; meridies, mid-day, is masculine only.

NOTE. Dies is seldom feminine, in good prose writers, except when it denotes duration of time, or a day fixed and determined.

## EXCEPTIONS IN DECLENSION.

2. The genitive and dative singular sometimes end in \(\tilde{e}\) or in \(\tilde{t}\), instead of \(\tilde{e}\) is seen, \(\delta\) is for \(\delta\) i.i., Virg.; \(f)\) the for \(fide\), Hor.; \(ac\) is for \(ac\) iii, Cas.—gen. \(pk\) bit of \(pk\) this, \(i)\). However, \(i)\) the and \(peri\) periodicis. The genitive \(rangle\) contracted for \(rangle\) rabies, after the third declension, is found in Lucretius.

REMARK 1. There are only about eighty nouns of this declension, and of these only two, res and dies, are complete in the plural. Acies, efficies, elwies, facies, glacies, processies, series, series, specties, spec, want the genitive, dative, and ablative plural, and the rest want the plural altogether.

Rem. 2. All nouns of this declension end in ies, except four—fides, faith; res, a thing; spes, hope; and phobes, the common people;—and all nouns in ies are of this declension, except abies, aries, paries, quies, and requies, which are of the third declension.

## Declension of Compound Nouns.

§ **91.** When a compound noun consists of two nominatives, both parts are declined; but when one part is a nominative, and the other an oblique case, the nominative only is declined. Of the former kind are respublica, a commonwealth, and jusjurandum, an oath; of the latter, mater-familias, a mistress of a family. Cf. § 43, 2.

Singul	lar.
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- N. V. res-pŭb'-li-ca, G. D. re-i-pub'-li-cæ,
- Ac. rem-pub'-li-cam,
  Ab. re-pub'-li-ca.

## Plural.

- N. V. res-pub'-li-cæ,
- G. re-rum-pub-li-cā'-rum,
  D. Ab. re-bus-pub'-lǐ-cis,
  - Ac. res-pub'-li-cas.

Singular.  N. jus-ju-ran'-dum, G. ju-ris-ju-ran'-di, D. ju-ri-ju-ran'-do, Ac. jus-ju-ran'-dum, V. jus-ju-ran'-dum, Ab. ju-re-ju-ran'-do.	Plural. ju-ra-ju-ran'-da, ju-ra-ju-ran'-da, ju-ra-ju-ran'-da.	Singular.  N. ma-ter-fa-mil'-i-as, G. ma-tris-fa-mil'-i-as, D. ma-tri-fa-mil'-i-as, Ac. ma-trem-fa-mil'-i-as, V. ma-ter-fa-mil'-i-as, Ab. ma-tre-fa-mil'-i-as, etc.
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Note. The preceding compounds are divided and pronounced like the simple words of which they are compounded.

### IRREGULAR NOUNS.

§ 92. Irregular nouns are divided into three classes— Variable, Defective, and Redundant.

### I. VARIABLE NOUNS.

A noun is variable, which, in some of its parts, changes either its gender or declension or both.

Nouns which vary in gender are called heterogeneous; those which vary in declension are called heteroclites.

## Heterogeneous Nouns.

 Masculine in the singular, and neuter in the plural; as, Avernus, Diwlýmus, Ismārus, Massicus, Manālus, Panyans, Tartārus, Taygētus; plur. Averna, etc.

2. Masculine in the singular, and masculine or neuter in the plural; as,

jórus, a jest; plur, jóci, or jóca;—bícus, a place; plur, bíci, passages in books, topics, places; bóca, places; sióllus, a hissing; plur, sióllu, rarely siólli;—intibus, enlive; plur, intibi or intibus.

3. Feminine in the singular, and neuter in the plural; as,

carbāsus, a species of flax; plur. carbāsa, very rarely carbāsi, sails, etc., made of it;—Hierosolýma, -æ, Jerusalem; plur. Hierosolýma, -ōrum.

 Neuter in the singular, and masculine in the plural; as, calim, heaven; plur. cali;—Elysium; plur. Elysii;—Argos; plur. Argi. So siser, neut., plur. sistres, masc.

5. Neuter in the singular, and masculine or neuter in the plural; as.

frēnum, a bridle; plur. frēni or frēna;—rastrum, a rake; plur. rastri, or, more rarely, rastra;—pugillar, a writing tablet; plur. pugillāres or pugillaria.

 Neuter in the singular, and feminine in the plural; as, epālum, a feast; plur. epālus:—balneum, a bath; plur. balneæ or balnea; nundinum, a market-day; plur. nundinæ, a fair.

7. Feminine or neuter in the singular, and feminine in the plural;

delicia or delicium, delight; plur. delicia.

## Heteroclites.

§ 93. 1. Second or third declension in the singular, and third in the plural; as,

nom. and acc. jugėrum, an acre; gen. jugėri or jugėris; abl. jugėro and jugėre; plur., nom., and acc. jugėra; gen. jugėrum; abl. jugėris and jugeribus.

 Third declension in the singular, and second in the plural; as, v\(\text{is}\), a vessel; plur. v\(\text{is}\), \(\text{is}\), \(\text{ic}\), a shield, has sometimes ancili\(\text{iorum}\), in the genitive plural.

Note. Variable nouns seem anciently to have been redundant, and to have retained a part of each of their original forms. Thus, vāsu. -ōrum, properly comes from vāsum, -ō, but the latter, together with the plural of vas, vāsis, became obsolete.

#### II. DEFECTIVE NOUNS.

## § 94. Nouns are defective either in case or in number.

1. Nouns defective in case may want either one or more cases. Some are altogether indeclinable, and are called aptotes.

Such are pondo, a pound; most nouns in i; as, gummi, gum; foreign words; as, Arron, Jacobi; simis, a half; git, a kind of plant; the singular of mille, a thousand; words put for nouns; as, relle sim, for sin columns, his own inclination; and names of the letters of the alphabet.

A noun which is found in one case only, is called a *Monoptote*; if found in two cases, a *Diptote*; if in three, a *Triptote*; if in four, a *Tetraptote*; and if in five, a *Pentaptote*.

The following list contains most nouns defective in case. Those which occur but once in Latin authors are distinguished by an asterisk:—

\*Abactus, acc. pl.; a driving away. Accītu, abl.; a calling for.

Admissu, abl.; admission. Admonitu, abl.; admonition.

Æs, not used in gen. pl.

Affātu, abl.; an addressing;—pl. affā-

Affatu, abi.; an addressing;—pt. affatus, -ibus.

Algus, nom.; algum, acc.; algu, abl.; cold.

Ambage, abl.; a going around;—pl. cutire.

\*Amissum, acc.; a loss.

Aplustre, nom. and acc.; the flag of a ship:-pl. aplustria, or aplustra.

Arbitratus, nom.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; judgment.

Arcessitu, abl.; a sending for.

Astu, nom., acc.; a city.

Astus, nom.; astu, abl.; craft;—astus,

Cacoëthes, nom., acc.; an eril custom;—cacoëthe, nom. pl.; -e, and -es, acc. pl.

Canities, nom.; -em, acc.; -e, abl.

Cētos, acc.: a whale :-cēte, nom. and

acc. pl.; cetis, dat. Chaos, mm. acc.; chao, abl.; chaos. Cassem, acc.; casse, abl.; a net;—pl.

Cassem, acc.; casse, abt.; a net;—pt. entire. Circumspectus, nom.; -un; -u; a look-

ing around.
Conette, abl.; constraint.
Cælite, abl.; pl. entire; inhabitants of

heaven. \*Commutatum, acc.; an alteration. Compědis, gen.; compěde, abl.; a fet-

ter; -pl. compedes, -ium, -ibus. Concessu, abl.; permission. Condiscipulatu, abl.; companionship at

school.

Crātim, or -em, acc.; -e, abl.; a hurdle; -pl. crātes, -ium, -ibus.

Cupressu, abl.; a cypress.
Daps, nom., scarcely used; dăpis, gen.
ctc. pl. dapes, -Ibus; a feast.

\*Datu, abl.; a giving. Derisus, -ui, dat.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; ridicule. Despicatui, dat.; contempt.

Dica, nom.; dicam, acc.; a legal process; -dicas, acc. pl.

Dicis, gen.; as, dicis gratia, for form's

Ditionis, gen.; -i, dat.; -em, acc.; -e,

abl.; power. Diu, abl.; in the day time.

Divisui, dat.; a dividing. Ebur, ivory; -not used in the plural.

\*Efflagitatu, abl.; importunity. \*Ejectus, nom.; a throwing out.

Epos, nom. and acc.; an epic poem. Ergo, abl. (or adv.); for the sake. Essedas, acc. pl.; war chariots.

Evectus, nom.; a carrying out. Fæx, dregs, wants gen. pl.

Fămē, abl.; hunger. Far, corn, not used in the gen., dut.,

and abl. pl.

Fas, nom.; acc.; right. Fauce, abl.; the throat;—pl. entire. Fax, a torch, wants gen. pl.

Fel, gall, wants gen. pl. Feminis, gen.: -i, dat.; -e, abl.; the

thigh; -pl. femina, -ibus.

Flictu, abl.; a striking. Fŏris, nom. and gen.; -em, acc; -e,

abl.; a door; -pl. entire. Fors, nom.; -tis, gen.; -tem, acc.; -te,

abl.; chance. \*Frustratui, abl.; a deceiving.

Frux, fruit, nom. scarcely used;frūgis, gen., etc.

Fulgetras, acc. pl.; lightning. Gausape, nom., acc., abl.; a rough gar-

ment; -gausăpa, acc. pl. Glos, nom.; a husband's sister.

Grātes, acc. pl.; -gratībus, abl.; thanks. Hebdomadam, acc.; a week.

Hiems, winter, not used in gen., dat., and abl. pl.

Hippomänes, nom. and acc.

\*Hir, nom.; the palm of the hand. Hortatu, abl.; an exhorting; --pl. hor-

tatībus. Impetis, gen.; -e, abl.; a shock;-pl.

impetībus. Incitas, or -a, acc. pl.; as, ad incitas

reductus, reduced to a strait.

\*Inconsultu, abl.; without advice. \*Indultu, abl.; indulgence.

Inferiæ, nom. pl.; -as, acc.; -is, abl.; sacrifices to the dead.

Infitias, acc. pl.; a denial; as, ire infitias, to deny.

Ingratiis, abl. pl., (used adverbially); against one's will.

Injussu, abl.; without command. Inquies, nom.; restlessness. Instar, nom., acc.: a likeness.

Interdiu, abl. (or adv.); in the day time. \*Invitatu, abl.; an invitation.

Irrisui, dat.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; derision.

Jovis, nom., rarely used;—pl. Joves. Jugeris, gen.; -e, abl.; an acre; -pl. jugera, -um, -ibus.

Jussu, abl.; command. Lābes, a spot, wants gen. pl. Lūcu, abl.; day-light.

\*Ludificatui, dat.; a mockery. Lux, light, wants the gen. pl.

Mandatu, abl.; a command. Mane, nom., acc.; mane, or rarely -i, abl.; the morning.

Mel, honey, not used in gen., dat., and abl. pl.

Mělos, nom., acc.; melo, dat.; melody; -měle, nom., acc. pl

Mětus, fear, not used in gen., dat., and abl. pl. Missu, abl.; a sending; -pl. missus,

-Ibus. Monitu, abl.; admonition; -- pl. mon-

Itus. Nātu, abl.; by birth.

Nauci, gen., with non; as, homo non nauci, a man of no account.

Netas, nom., acc.; wickedness. Nēmo, nobody, wants the voc. and

the pl. Nepenthes, nom., acc.; an herb. Nex, death, wants the voc.; -neces,

nom., acc. pl. Nihil, or nihilum, nom, and acc.: -i. gen.; -o, abl.; nothing.

Noctu, abl.; by night. Nuptui, dat.; -um, acc.; -u, abt.;

marriage. Obex, nom.; -icem, acc.; -ice, or -jice,

abl.; a bolt;—pl. obices, -jicibus. Objectum, acc.; -u, abl.; an interposi-tion;—pl. objectus.

Obtentui, dat.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; a pretext.

Opis, gen.; ŏpem, acc.; ŏpe, abl.; help;—pl. entire.

Oppositu, abl.; an opposing;-pl. oppositus, acc.

Opus, nom., acc.; need.

Os, the mouth, wants the gen. pl. Panaces, nom.; -is, gen.; -e, abl.; an

Pax, peace, wants gen. pl.

Peccatu, abl.; a fault. Pecudis, gen.; -i, dat.; -em, acc.; -e,

abl.; -pl. entire. Pelage, acc. pl. of pelagus; the sea. Permissu, abl.; -um, acc.; permission.

Piscatus, nom.; -i, gen.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; a fishing.

Pix, pitch; pices, acc. pl. Pondo, abl.; in weight. Cf. § 94, 1. Preci, dat.; -em, acc.; -e, abl.; prayer;

-pl. entire. Procer; nom.; -em, acc.; a peer;-pl.

entire. Promptu, abl., readiness.

Pus wants gen. dat. and abl. pl. Relātum, acc. ;—u, abl. ; a recital. Repetundārum, gen. pl.; -is, abl.;

money taken by extertion. Rogatu, abl.; a request.

Ros, dew, wants gen. pl. Rus, the country, wants gen., dat., and

Satias, nom.; -atem, acc.; ate, abl.;

satiety. Secus, nom., acc.; sex.

Situs, nom.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; situation ;-situs, nom. and acc. pl.

Situs, nom.; -ūs, gen.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; rust; -situs, acc. pl.

Sol, the sun, wants gen. pl. Sordis, gen.; -em, acc.; -e and -i, abl; filth; -pl. sordes,-ium, etc.

Spontis, gen.; -e, abl.; of one's own accord.

Subŏles, offspring, wants gen. pl.

Suppetiæ, nom. pl.; -as, acc.; sup-Tābum, nom.; -i, gen.; -o, abl.; corrupt matter.

Tempe, nom. acc. voc. pl.; a vale in Thessaly. Tus wants gen., dat., and abl. pl.

Vēnui and -o, dat.; um, acc.; -o, abl.;

Veprem, acc.; -e, abl.; a brier; -pl.

Verberis, gen.; -e, abl.; a stripe; -pl. verbera, um, ibus.

Vesper, nom.; -um, acc-; -e, -i, or -o, abl.; the evening.

Vespera, nom.; -am, acc.; -a, abl.; the evening.

Vicis, gen.; -i, dat.; -em, acc.; -e, abl.; change ;-pl. entire, except gen. Virus, nom.; -i, gen,; -us, acc.; -o, abl.; poison.

Vis, gen. and dat. rare; strength; pl. vīres, -ium, etc. See § 85.

Visens, nom.; -čris, gen.; -čre, abl.; an internal organ. pl. viscera, etc. Vocātu, abl.; a calling; -vocātus, acc.

REMARK 1. To these may be added nouns of the fifth declension, which either want the plural, as most of them are abstract nouns, or have in that number only the nominative, accusative, and vocative. Res and dies, however, have the plural entire. Cf. § 90, R. 1.

REM. 2. For the use of the vocative, also, of many nouns, no classical authority can be found.

\$ 95. 2. Nouns defective in number, want either the plural or the singular.

(a) Many nouns want the plural from the nature of the things which they express. Such are generally names of persons, most names of places (except those which have only the plural), the names of herbs, of the arts, most material and abstract nouns; but these may have a plural when used as common nouns, (§ 26, R. 3.), and many others.

REM. In Latin the plural of abstract nouns is often used to denote the existence of the quality, attribute, etc. in different objects, or the repetition of an action; and in poetry such plurals are used for the sake of emphasis or metre. See § 98.

The following list contains many of the nouns which want the plural, and also some, marked p, which are included in the above classes, but are sometimes used in the plural.

Aconitum, wolfsbane, p. Adorea, a military reward.

Acr, the air, p. Æs, brass, money, p. Æther, the sky.

Evum, age, lifetime, p. Album, an album. Allium, garlic, p. Amicitia, friendship, p. Argilla, white clay. Avēna, outs, p.

Balaustium, the flower of the pomegranate. Balsamum, balsam, p. Barathrum, a gulf. Callum, hardened skin, p. Calor, heat, p.

Carduus, a thistle, p. Lac, milk. Căro, flesh, p. Cera, wax, p. Cestus, a girdle. Cicūta, hemlock, p. Cœmm, mud. Contagium, contagion, p. Crocum, saffron. Crocus, saffron, p. Cruor, blood, p. Cutis, the skin, p. Diluculum, the dawn. Ebur, ivory. Electrum, amber, p. Far, corn, p. Fel, gall, p. Fervor, heat, p. Fides, faith. Fimus, dung. Fŭga, flight, p. Fūmus, smoke, p. ments. Furor, madness, p. Galla, an oak-apple, p. Gělu, frost. Glarea, gravel. Gloria, glory, p. Glastum, woad. thing. Glüten, or Ghitimum, glue. Gypsum, white plaster. Hepar, the liver. Hesperus, the evening star. Hilum, a little thing. Hordeum, barley, p. Humus, the ground. Indoles, native quality, p. Ira, anger, p. Jubar, radiance. Jus, justice, law, p.

Purpňra, purple, p. Lætitia, joy, p. Quies, rest, p. Languor, faintness, p. Lardum, bacon, p. Ros, dew, p. Rubor, redness, p. Latex, liquor, p. Sabulo and Letum, death. Sabulum, gravel. Lignum, wood, p. Sal, salt. Linus, mud. Salum, the sea. Liquor, liquor, p. Lues, a plague. Sălus, safety. Sanguis, blood. Scrupulum, a scruple, p. Senium, old age. Lŭtum, clay, p. Lux, light, p. Macellum, the shambles. Siler, an osier. Sināpi, mustard. Mane, the morning. Marmor, marble, p. Siser, skirret, p Mel, honey, p. Meridies, mid-day. Sitis, thirst. Sol, the sun, p. Mors, death, p. Sopor, sleep, p. Specimen, an example. Munditia, neutness, p. Mundus, female orna-Spūma, foam, p. Sulfur, sulphur, p. Muscus, moss. Supellex, furniture. Nectar, nectar. Tabes, a consumption. Nēmo, no man. Tabum, corrupt matter. Nequitia, wickedness, p. Tellus, the earth. Nihilum, nihil, or nil, no-Terror, terror, p. Thýmum, thyme, p. Nitrum, natron. Tribulus, a thistle, p. Oblivio, forgetfulness, p. Tristitia, sadness. Omāsum, bullock's tripe. Ver, spring. Vespera, the evening. Veternus, lethargy. Opium, opium. Palea, chaff, p. Vigor, strength, p. Pax, peace, p. Pěnum, and Vinum, wine, p. Pėnus, provisions, p. Virus, poison. Piper, pepper. Pix, pitch, p. Viscum, and Viscus, bird-lime. Pontus, the sea. Vitrum, woad. Prolubium, desire. Vulgus, the common peo-Pūbes, the youth. Zingiber, ginger. Pulvis, dust, p.

§ **96.** (b). The names of festivals and games, and several names of places and books, want the singular; as, *Bacchanalia*, a festival of Bacchus; Olympia, the Olympic games; Bucolica, a book of pastorals; and the following names of places:—

Acroceraunia,	Baiæ,	Fundi,	Locri,	Sūsa,
Amvelæ,	Ceraunia,	Gabii,	Parisii,	Syracūsæ,
Artaxăta,	Echatana,	Gādes,	Philippi,	Thermopylæ,
Athenæ,	Esquiliæ,	Gemoniæ,	Puteoli,	Veii.

Note. Some of those in i properly signify the people.

The following list contains most other nouns which want the singular, and also some, marked s, which are rarely used in that number:—

Acta, records.	
Adversaria, a memoran-	
cum-book.	
Æstīva, sc. castra, sum-	
mer quarters.	

Justitium, a law vacation.

	Alpes, the Alps, s.
-	Annales, annals, s.
	Antæ, door-posts.
_	Antes, rows.
	Antia, a foreloc :.

i in that number.	
Apine, trifles.	
Argutiæ, witticisms,	8
Arma, arms.	
Artus, the joints, s.	
Rellaria sweetments	

Bīgæ, a two-horse chariot, s. Braccæ, breeches. Branchiæ, the gills of fishes. Brevia, shallow places.

Brevia, shallow places. Calendæ, the Calends. Cancelli, balustrades. Cāni, gray hairs. Casses, a hunter's net, s. Caulæ, sheep-folds. Celères, the body-guard

of the Roman kings. Clibria, victuals, s. Clitellee, a pack-saddle. Codicilli, a writing. Colltes, the gods, s. Crepmdia, a rattle. Cunabula, and Cūne, a cradle. Cyclades, the Cyclades, the Cyclades, s.

Diræ, the Furies, s.
Divitiæ, riches.
Druides, the Druids.
Dryādes, the Dryads, s.
Epūlæ, a banquet, s.
Eunenides, the Furies, s.

Decimæ, tithes, s.

Excubiæ, watches.
Exsequiæ, funeral rites.
Exta, entruils.
Exuviæ, spoils.
Facetiæ, pleasantry, s.

Ferix, holidays, s.
Fides, a stringed instrument, s.
Fiabra, blasts.
Fraces, the lees of oil.

Fraga, strawberries, s. Gemmi, twins, s. Geme, cheeks, s. Gerræ, trifles. Grates, thanks.

Habenæ, reins, s.
Hiberna, sc. castra, winter quarters.
Hyades, the Hyades, s.

Hyades, the Hyades, s. Idus, the ides of a month. Ilia, the flank. Incunabula, a cradle. Indutiæ, a truce.

Induviæ, clothes.
Ineptiæ, fooleries, s.
Inferi, the dead.
Inferiæ, sacrifices in honor
of the dead.
Insecta, insects.
Insidiæ, an ambuscade, s.

of the dead.
Insecta, insects.
Insidiæ, an ambuscade, s.
Justa, funeral rites.
Lactes, small entrails, s.
Lamenta, lamentations.
Lapicidinæ, a stone quar-

ry. Latebræ, a hiding place,

s. Laurices, young rabbits. Lautia, presents to foreign ambassadors. Lomures, hobgoblins. Lendes, nits Liberi, children, s.

Liber, children, s.
Luc'ers, a division of the
Roman cavalry.
Magalia, cottages.
Majores, ancestors.
Mines, the shades, s.
Manubie, spoils of war.
Mapalia, huts, s.
Minaciæ, and
Minæ, threats.

Minores, posterity.
Mania, the walls of a city, s.
Multitia, garments finely wrought.
Whysic official duties

Munia, official duties. Naiades, water-nymphs, s. Nāres, the nostrils, s. Natāles, parentage. Nātes, the haunches, s. Noma, corroding sores or

ulcers., s.

Nonæ, the nones of a
month. § 326, 1.

Nūgæ, jests, nonsense.

month. § 326, 1. Nūgæ, jests, nonsense. Nundīnæ, the weekly market.

Nuptiæ, a marriage. Oblivia, forgetfulness, s. Offuciæ, cheats, s. Optimätes, the aristocratic purby, s. Palearia, the dewlap, s. Pandectæ, the pandects. Parietinæ, old walls. Partes, a party, s. Pascua, pastures, s. Penätes, household gods,

Shalere, trappings.
Philtra, love potions.
Philtra, love potions.
Pleiades, the Pleiads or
seven stars, s.
Posteri, posterity,
Præbia, an amulet.
Præcordia, the diaphragm, the entrails.
Primitive, pirst fruits.
Proceres, nobles, s.
Pugillaria, or -ares,
woriting-tablets, s.

writing-tablets, s.
Quadrīgæ, a team of four
horses, s.
Quirītes, Roman citizens,

Quisquilie, refuse.
Reliquire, the remains, s.
Salebra, rugged roads, s.
Salebra, rugged roads, s.
Suline, salt pits.
Scale, a ladder, s.
Scale, a ladder, s.
Scope, a broom.
Scrita, old stuff.
Scrites, thorns, s.
Sponsalia, espousals.
Stativa, sc. castra, a
stationary camp.
Suprit, the gods abore.
Talaria, winged shoes.

Tamba, actives suces. Tesca, rough places.
Thermæ, warm baths.
Tormha, tolic-pains.
Transtra, seats for rowers, s.

ers, s. Tricæ, trifles, tons. Utensilin, utensils. Valvæ, folding doors, s. Vepres, brambles, s. Vergiliæ, the seven stars. Vindicire, a legal claim, s. Virgulta, bushes.

§ 97. The following usually differ in meaning in the different numbers.

Ædes, -is, a temple.
Ædes, -ium, a house.
Aqua, water.
Aque, medicinal springs.
Auxilium, aid.
Auxilia. auxiliary troops.
5\*

Bönum, a good thing.
Böna, property.
Career, a prison.
Carcères, the barriers of
a race-course.
Castrum, a castle.

Castra, a camp.
Comitium, a part of the
Roman forum.
Comitin, an assembly for
election.
Copia, plenty.

Copie, troops, forces. Cupedia, -e, daintiness. Cupedia, -e, daintiness. Cupedia, -ārum, and Cupedia, -ōrum, dainties. Facultaies, property. Fastus, -ūs, prude. Fastus, -um, and Fasti, -ōrum, a calendar. Fortūna, Fortūna, wealth. Furfur, bran. Furfurg, dandruff. Gratia, favor. Gratia, favor. Gratia, thanks.

Impedimentum, a hinderance.
Impedimenta, baggage.
Litèra, a letter of the alphabet.
Litère, an epistle.
Lidus, pastime.
Lidi, public games.
Lustrum, a morass.

Lūdus, pastime.
Lūdi, public games.
Lustrum, a morass.
Lustrum, a morass.
Lustrum, a hauut or den of wild beasts.
Mores, manners.
Nāris, a nostril.
Nāres, the nose.
Sūles, witticisms.

Natālis, a birthday.
Natāles, birth, lineage.
Opēra, work, labor.
Opēra, workmen.
Opis, gen. power.
Opis, gen. power.
Higa, a region, tract.
Higae, nets, toils.
Principium, a beginning.
Principium, a beginning.
Rostrum, a beak, prow.
Rostra, the Rostra.

§ **98.** The following plurals, with a few others, are sometimes used in poetry, especially in the nominative and accusative, instead of the singular, for the sake of emphasis or metre.

Empira. the sea. Hymenei, marriage. Pectora, the breast.

Equora, the sea. Alta, the sea. Animi, courage. Auræ, the air. Carinæ, a keel. Cervices, the neck. Colla, the neck. Comæ, the hair. Connubia, marriage. Corda, the heart. Corpora, a body. Crepuscula, twilight. Currus, a chariot. Exsilia, banishment. Frigora, cold. Gaudia, joy. Gramina, grass. Guttura, the throat.

Ignes, love. Inguina, the groin. Iræ, anger. Jejnnia, fusting. Jubæ, a mane. Limina, a threshold. Litora, a shore. Mensæ, a service or course of dishes. Neniæ, a funeral dirge. Numina, the divinity. Odia, hatred. Ora, the mouth, the countenance. Oræ, confines. Ortus, a rising, the east. Otia, ease, leisure.

Peetora, the breast. Reditūs, a return. Regna, a kingdom. Rictus, the jaws. Robora, strength. Silentia, silence. Sinus, the bosom of a Roman garment. Tædæ, a torch. Tempora, time. Terga, the back. Thalami, marriage or marriage-bed. Tóri, a bed, a couch. Tūra, frankincense. Vice, a journey. Vultus, the countenance.

## III. REDUNDANT NOUNS.

§ 99. Nouns are redundant either in termination, in declension, in gender, or in two or more of these respects.

1. In termination: (a.) of the nominative; as, arbor, and arbos, a tree: (b.) of the oblique cases; as, tigris,; gen. tigris, or -idis; a tiger.

2. In declension; as, laurus; gen. -i, or -ūs; a laurel.

3. In gender; as, vulgus, masc. or neut.; the common people.

4. In termination and declension; as, senecta, -æ, and senectus, -ūtis; old age.

5. In termination and gender; as pileus, mase., and pileum, neut.; a hat.

6. In declension and gender; as pēnus, -i or ūs, masc. or fem., and pēnus, -ŏris, neut.; a store of provisions. Spēcus, -ūs or -i, masc. fem. or neut.; a cave.

7. In termination, declension, and gender; as, menda, -æ, fem. and mendum, -i, neut.; a fault.

## The following list contains most Redundant Nouns of the above classes:-

Acĭnus, -um, and -a, a berry. Adagium, and -io, a proverb. Admonitio, -um, and -us, ūs, a reminding.

Athra, and wther, the clear sky.

Affectio, and -us, ūs, affection.

Agamemuo, and -on, Agamemnon.

Alabaster, tri, and pl. -tra, ōrum, an alabater her.

alabaster box.
Alimonia, and -un, aliment.
Alluvio, and -es, a food.
Alvearium, and -irc, a bee-hive.
Amariaus, and -um, marjoram.
Amygdila, and -um, an almond.
Anfractum, and -us, is, a winding.
Angiportum, and -us, is, a narrow lane or alleu.

or alley. Antidotus, and -um, an antidote. Aranea, and -us, i, a spider. Arar, and Araris, the river Arar. Arbor, and -os, a tree. Architectus, and -on, an architect. Arcus, -ūs, and i, a bow. Attagena, and -gen, a moor-hen. Avaritia, and -ies, avarice. Augmentum, and -men, an increase. Baccar, and -aris, a kind of herb. Baculus, and -um, a staff. Balteus, and -um, a belt. Barbaria, and -ies, barbarism. Barbitus, and -on, a harp. Batillus, and -um, a fire-shovel. Blanditia, and -ies, flattery. Buccina, and -um, a trumpet. Būra, and -is, a plough-tail. Buxus, and -um, the box-tree. Cæpa, and cæpe, an onion. Calamister, tri, and -trum, a crisping-

Callus, and -um, hardened skin. Cancer, cri, or eris, a crab. Canitia, and -ies, hoariness. Cāpus, and cāpo, a capon. Carrus, and -um, a kind of waggon? Cassida, and -cassis, a helmet. Catīnus, and -um, a bowl, dish. Chirographus, and -um, a hand-writing. Cingula, -us, and -um, a girdle. Clipeus, and -um, a shield. Cochlearium, -ar, and -are, a spoon. Colluvio, and -ies, filth. Commentarius, and -um, a journal. Compages, and -go, a joining. Conatum, and -us, us, an attempt. Concinnitas, and -tudo, neatness. Consortium, and -io, partnership. Contagium, -io, and -es, contact. Cornum, -us, i, or ūs, a cornel tree. Costos, i, and -um, a kind of shrub.

Cratera, and crater, a bowl. Croeus, and -um, saffron. Crystallus, and -um, crystal. Cubitus, and -um, the elbow. Cupidītas, and -pīdo, desire. Cupressus, i, or ūs, a cypress-tree. Delicia, and -um, delight. Delphīnus, and delphin, a dolphin. Dictainnus, and -um, dittany. Diluvium, -o, and -ies, a deluge. Domus, i, or ūs, a house. Dorsus, and -um, the back. Duritia, and -ies, hardness. Effigia, and -ies, an image. Elegia, and -on, i, an elegy. Elephantus, and -phas, an elephant. Epitoma, and -e, an abridgment. Esseda, and -um, a chariot. Evander, dri, and -drus, Evander. Eventum, and -us, us, an event. Exemplar, and -are, a pattern. Ficus, i, or us, a fig-tree. Fimus, and -um, dung. Frètum, and -us, ūs, a strait. Fulgetra, and -um, lightning. Galerus, and -um, a hat, cap. Ganea, and -um, an eating-house. Gausapa, -es, -e, and -um, frieze. Gibba, -ns, and -er, čri, a hump. Glutinum, and -ten, glue. Gobius, and -io, a gudgeon. Grammatica, and -e, grammar. Grus, gruis, and gruis, is, a crane. Hebdomada, and -mas, a week. Helleborus, and -um, hellebore. Honor, and honos, honor. Hyssopus, and -um, hyssop. Ilios, -um, and -on, Troy. Incestum, and -us, us, incest. Inthbus, and -um, endive. Jugulus, and -um, the throat. Juventa, -us, ūtis, and -as, youth. Labor, and labos, labor. Lacerta, and -us, a lizard. Laurus, i, or ūs, a laurel. Lepor, and lepos, wit. Ligur, and -us, ŭris, a Ligurian. Lupinus, and -um, a lupine. Luxuria, and -ies, luxury. Mæander, -dros, and -drus, Mæander. Margarita, and -nm, a pearl. Materia, and -ies, materials. Medimnus, and -um, a measure. Menda, and -um, a fault. Modius, and -um, a measure. Mollitia, and -ies, softness. Momentum, and -men, influence. Mügil, and -ilis, a mullet. Mulciber, éri, or éris, Vulcan.

Mulctra, and -um, a milk-pail. Munditin, and -ies, neatness. Muria, and -ics, brine or pickle. Myrtus, i or ūs, a myrtle. Nardus, and -um, nard. Nasus, and -um, the nose. Necessitas, and -ūdo, necessity. Neonitia, and -ies, worthlessness. Notitia, and -ies, knowledge. Oblivium, and -io, forgetfulness. Obsidium, and -io, a siege. Œdipus, i, or odis, Œdipus. Ostrea, and -um, an oyster. Palatus, and -um, the pulate. Palumba, -us, and -es, a pigeon. Papyrus, and -um, papyrus. Paupertas, and -ies, poverty. Pavus, and pavo, a peacock. Pěnus, i, -oris, or ūs, and pěnum, provisions.

Peplus, and -um, a reil.
Perseus, ei, or eos, Perseus.
Pileūs, and -um, a hat.
Pinus, i, or ūs, a pine-tree.
Pistrina, and -um, a bake-house.
Plaintia, and -ies, a plain.
Plato, and Plāton, Plato.
Plebs, and plēbes, ei, the common people.
Postulātum, and -io, a request.
Postulātum, and -io, a request.
Præsēpia, -ium, -es, or -is, and -e, a

Prætextum, and -us, ūs, a pretext. Prosapia, and -ies, lineage. Rāpa, and -um, a turnip. Requies, ētis or ēt, rest. Rēte, and rētis, a net. Reticūlus, and -um, a small net.

stable.

Rictum, and -us, ūs, the open mouth. Sævitia, -ūdo and -ies, ferocity. Sagus, and -um, a military clouk. Sanguis, and sanguen, blood. Satrapes, and satraps, a satrap. Scabritia, and -ies, roughness. Scorpius, -os, and -io, a scorpion. Segmentum, and -men, a piece. Seguitia, and -ies, sloth. Senecta, and -us, old age. Sequester, tri, or tris, a trustee. Sesama, and -um, sesame. Sibilus, and -a, orum, a hissing. Sināpi, and -is, mustard. Sīnus, and -um, a goblet. Sparus, and -a, orum, a spear. Spurcitia, and -ies, filthiness. Strameutum, and -men, straw. Suffimentum, and -men, fumigation. Suggestus, and -um, a pulpit, stage. Suppurus, and -um, a linen garment. Supplicium, -icamentum, and -icatio a public supplication. Tapetum, -ete, and -es, tapestry. Teneritas, and -tido, softness. Tergum, and -us, oris, the back. Tiāra, and -as, a turban. Tignus, and -um, a beam, timber.

Reice and reits, a net.

Reticulus, and -um, a small net.

Vulgus, masc. and neut., the common people.

REMARK 1. To these may be added some other verbals in us and io, and Greek nouns in o and on; as, Dio and Dion; also some Greek nouns in es and

Tigris, is, or idis, a tiger.

Titanus, and Titan, Titan.

Trabes, and trabs, a beam.

Tonitruum, and -trus, ūs, thunder.

Tribula, and -um, a threshing sledge.

Vespera, -per, eri and eris, the evening.

Vinaceus, and -a, orum, a grape-stone. Viscus, and -um, the mistletoe.

Torāle, and -al, a bed-covering.

e, which have Latin forms in a; as, Atrides and Atride. See § 45.

REM. 2. Some proper names of places also are redundant in number; as,

Argos and Argi; Fidena and Fidena; Thebe and Theba.

Note. The different forms of most words in the above list are not equally common, and some are rarely used, or only in particular cases.

## DERIVATION OF NOUNS.

§ 100. Nouns are derived from other nouns, from adjectives, and from verbs.

### I. FROM NOUNS.

From nouns are derived the following classes:—

1. A patronymic is the name of a person, derived from that of his father or other ancestor, or of the founder of his nation.

- Note 1. Patronymics are properly Greek nouns, and have been borrowed from that language by the Latin poets.
- (a.) Masculine patronymics end in ides, ides, ades, and iddes.
- (1.) Nouns in us of the second declension, and those nouns of the third declension, whose root ends in a short syllable, form their patronymics in ides; as, Priamules; Agamemnon, gen. onis, Agamemnonides.
- (2.) Nouns in eus and cles form their patronymics in ides; as, A-treus, Atrides; Heracles (i. e. Heranles.) Heraclides.
- Rem. 1. Ænides, in Virg. A. 9, 653, is formed in like manner, as if from Ænēus, instead of Ænēas.
- (3.) Nouns in ās and ēs of the first declension form their patronymics in ādes, as Ænēās, Ænēādes; Hippotēs, Hippotādes.
- (4.) Nonns in its of the second declension, and those nouns of the third declension, whose root ends in a long vowel, form their patronymics in tides; as, Thestias, Thestiades; Amphitryo (gen. onis), Amphitryoniades.
- REM 2. A few nouns also of the first declension have patronymics in iddes; as, Anchises, Anchiseades.
- (b.) Feminine patronymics end in is, ēis, and ias, and correspond in termination to the masculines, viz. is to ūdes, ēis to ūdes, and ūas to ūddes; as, Tyndārus, masc. Tyndarūdes, fem. Tyndāris; Nēreus, masc. Nereūdes, fem. Nerēs; Thestius, masc. Thestūdes, fem. Thestūts.
- REM. 3. A few feminines are found in ine, or ione; as, Nerme, Acrisione, from Nereus and Acrisius.
- Note 2. Patronymics in des and ne are of the first deelension; those in is and as, of the third.
- 2. A patrial or gentile noun is derived from the name of a country; and denotes an inhabitant of that country; as,
- Trōs, a Trojan man; Trōus, a Trojan woman: Macēdo, a Macedonian; Samais, a Samaite; from Trōja, Macedonia, and Samaiam.
- Note 3. Most patrials are properly adjectives, relating to a noun understood; as, homo, civis, etc. See § 128, 6.
- 3. A diminutive signifies a small thing of the kind denoted by the primitive; as, liber, a book; libellus, a little book.
- Diminutives generally end in *ŭlus*, *ŭla*, *ŭlum*, or *cŭlus*, *cŭla*, *cŭlum*, according as the primitive is masuline, feminine, or neuter.
- A. 1. If the primitive is of the first or second declension, or its root ends, on the first property of the diminutive is formed by nunexing alus, a, un to the root; as, aralla, servalus, pueralus, sutalum, cornicala, regulas, capitalum, mercedala; from ara, serous, puer, scatum, cornic, (-i.is), rex, (régis), caput, (-iis), merces, (-d'dis.)
- 2. Printives of the first or second declension whose root ends in e or i, instead of ides, a, um, add ides, u, um; as, filiolus, gloriola, horreolum; from filius, glorio, horreolum;
- 3. Primitives of the first or second declension whose root ends in l, n, or r, form diminutives by contraction in ellus, a, um, and some in illus, a, um, as, occllus, ascllus, libellus, lucellum; from ocidus, asina, liber, lucrum; and sigillum, tigillum, from signam, tigram.
- B. 1. If the primitive is of the third, fourth, or fifth declension, the diminutive is formed in calus, (or walus), a, um.
- 2. Primitives of the third declension whose nominative ends in r, or in os or us from roots ending in r, annex calus to the nominative; as, fratercalus, soror-

căla, oscălum, corpuscălum; from frăter, sŏror, ŏs. (ŏris), corpus, (-ŏris).—So also primitives in es and is, but these drop the s of the nominative; as, ignicălus, năbc căla, diecăla; from ignis, năbes, dies.

3. Primitives of other terminations of the third declension, and those of the fourth, add iculus to the root; as, ponticulus, coticula, ossiculum, versiculus, corni-

culum; from pons, cos, ós, (ossis), versus, cornu.

4. Primitives in o, (inis or onis), in adding culus, a, um, change the final vowel of the root (i or o) into u; as, homunculus, sermunculus; from homo and sermo; and a few primitives of other terminations form similar diminutives; as, avum-

culus, domuncula; from avus and domus.

C. 1. A few diminutives end in uleus, as, equuleus, aculeus; from équus and ăcus; and a few also in io; as, homuncio, senecio, from homo and sénex.

2. Diminutives are sometimes formed from other diminutives; as, ascllibus, from ascllus; sometimes two or more diminutives with different terminations are formed from the same primitive, as, homancalus, homulus, and homancio; from homo; and sometimes the primitive undergoes euphonic changes; as rumuscalus, from rāmor.

Rem. Some diminutives differ in gender from their primitives; as ranunculus, scanillus, from rana and scannum.

4. (a.) An amplificative is a personal appellation denoting an excess of that which is expressed by its primitive; as,

Cupito, one who has a large head: so naso, labea, bucco, fronto, mento, one who has a large nose, lips, or cheeks, a broad forehead or long chin; from caput, nasus, labia, bucca, frons, and mentum.

(b.) A few personal appellatives in io denote the trade or profession to which a person belongs; as, ludio, an actor; pellio, a furrier; from ludus, and pellis.

5. The termination ium added to the root of a noun, indicates the office or condition, and often, derivatively, an assemblage of the individuals denoted by the primitive: as, collegium, colleagueship, and thence an assembly of colleagues; servitium, servitude, and collectively the servants; so sacerdotium, and ministerum; from collega, servus, succeedos, and minister.

6. The termination imonium is added to the root of a few nouns, denoting something derived from the primitives, or imparting to it its peculiar character; as, testimonium, testimony; so radimonium, patrimonium, matrimonium; from testis, vis (vadis), pater; and mater.

The termination \(\tilde{e}tum\), added to the root of names of plants, denotes a
place where they grow in abundance; as, quere'tum, laur'tum, oliv'etum, from
quereus, laurus, and oliva.

So, also, asculētum, dumētum, myrtētum, and by analogy saxētum. But somo drop e; as, carectum, salietum, rirgultum, and arbustum.

8. The termination \(\text{drium}\), added to the root of a noun, denotes a receptacle of the things signified by the primitive; as, \(\text{ariarium}\), an aviary; \(\text{plantarium}\), a bird, and \(\text{plantarium}\), a plant.

 The termination ile, added to the root of names of animals, marks the place where they are kept; as, borile, a stall for oxen; so caprile, orile; from bos, an ox, ciper, a goat, and ôcis, a sheep.

Note 1. This class and the preceding are properly neuter adjectives.

Note 2. Abstract nouns are derived either from adjectives or from verbs. See § 26, 5.

#### II. FROM ADJECTIVES.

§ 101. 1. Abstract nouns are formed by adding the termination tas, itudo, ia, itia or ities, ēdo, and imonia to the root of the primitive.

- Abstracts in itas, (equivalent to the English ty or ity), are formed from
  adjectives of each declension; as, capiditas, teneritas, caleritas, crudelitas, feïcitas; from capidas, there, celer, crudelis, and felix.
- (1.) When the root ends in i, the abstract is formed in ětas; as, piètas, from pius; and when it ends in t, as only is added; as, honestas from honestus.
- (2.) In a few abstracts i before tos is dropped; as, libertas, juventas, from liber, juventas, in fucultas and difficultas, from facilis, difficilis, there is a change also in the root-wowle from it ou.
- (3.) A few abstracts are formed in itus or tus, instead of itas; as, servitus, juventus, from servus and juvenis. See § 76, Exc. 2.
- 3. Abstructs in itādo are formed from adjectives in us, and some from adjectives of the third declension of two or three terminations; as magnitādo, altitādo, fortitādo, aeritādo, from magnus, allus, fortis, ā er. Polysyllabie adjectives in tus, generally form their abstracts by adding ūdo instead of itādo to their root; as, consuelādo, from consuelus.
- 4. Abstracts in ia (equivalent to the English ce or c<sub>u</sub>) are for the most part formed from adjectives of one tennination; as, clementia, constantia, impudentia, from clemens, constants, impudens. But some adjectives in us and er including verbals in condus, likewise form their verbals in in; as, miseria, augustia, facundia, from miser, augustia, facundia, from miser, augustia, facundia.
- 5. Abstracts in the and lites are formed from adjectives in us and is; as, justita, tristitia, duritia, and durities, segnitia and segnities, from justus, tristis, durus, and segnis.
- 6. A few abstracts are formed in iclo, and a few in imônia: and sometimes two or more abstracts of different terminations are formed from the same adjective; as, a critas, a critada, a critada, an cido, and a crimonia, from ôcer. In such case those in tâclo and imonia seem to be more intensive in signification than those in tas.

REMARK. Adjectives, as distinguished from the abstracts which are formed from them, are called *concretes*.

#### III. FROM VERBS.

## § 102. Nouns derived from verbs are called verbal nouns.

## The following are the principal classes:-

- Abstract nouns expressing the action or condition denoted by a verb, especially by a neuter verb, are formed by annexing or to their first root; as, āmor, love; fāvor, tavor; mævror, grief; splendor, brightness; from āmo, fāveo, mæreo, and splendeo.
- (a.) Abstracts are also formed from many verbs by annexing ium to the
  first or to the third root; as, colloquium, a conference; gaudium, joy; exvrdium, a beginning; exitium, destruction; solutium, consolation; from colloquor,
  gaudeo, exordior, exec and solor.
- Some verbal abstracts are formed by annexing ¿la, imônia, or imônium, to the first root of the verb; as, querèla and querimonia, a complaint; suadèla, persuasion; from quéror and suades.
- 4. (a.) The terminations men and mentum, added to the first root of the verb, generally with a connecting vowel, denote the thing to which the action belongs, both actively and passively, or a means for the performance of the action; as, Julmen from Julyco, Jamen from Julyco, July
- (b.) The final consonant of the root is often dropped, and the preceding and connecting vowels contracted into one syllable; as, ago, (agimen,) agmen; forco, (formentum,) forcentum.

- (c.) Some words of this class have no primitive verb in use; as, atramentum, ink; but, in this case, the connecting vowel seems to imply its reference to such a verb as atrāre, to blacken.
- 5. (a.) The terminations *ūlum*, *būlum*, *cūlum*; *brum*, *crum*, *trum*, annexed to the first root of a verb, denote an instrument for performing the act expressed by the verb, or a place for its performance; as, *cīngūlum*, *opercūlum*, *venabūlum*, *ventilabrum*, *fulcrum*, *spectrum*, from *cingo*, *operio*, *vēnov*, *ventilo*, *fulcio*, *spēcio*.
- (b.) Sometimes culum is contracted into clum; as, vinclum for vinculum. Sometimes, also, s is inserted before trum; as, rostrum, from rodo, and a connecting vowel is placed before this and some of the other terminations; as, arditrum, stabulum, cubiculum, from aro, sto, and cubo.
- (c.) Some words of this kind are formed from nouns; as, acetabulum, a vinegar cruet; turibulum, a censer; from acetum and tus.
- 6. (a.) Nouns formed by adding or and riz to the third root of the verb, denote respectively the male and fermle agent of the action expressed by the verb; as, adjator, adjatrix, an assistant; fautor, fautrix, a favorer; rictor, rictrix, a conqueror; from adjavo (adjat), fixeo (faut), vinco (vict). They are often likewise used as adjectives. The feminine form is less common than the masculine, and when the third root of the verb ends in s, the feminine is sometimes formed in triz; as, tondeo (tons-) bonstrix.
- (b.) Some nouns in tor are formed immediately from other nouns; as, viātor, a traveller; janitor, a door-keeper; from via and janua. In meretrix from mereo, i of the third root becomes e.
- (c.) The agent of a few verbs is denoted by the terminations a and a annexed to the first root; as, conviva, a guest; adviva, a stranger; s-oriba, a scribe; erro, a vagrant; b-iba, a drunkard; comido, a glutton, from conviva, adviva, ot
- 7. Many abstract nouns are formed by annexing io and us (gen. ūs) to the third root of a verb; as, actio, an action; lectio, reading; from ago (act-), lego (lect-);—cantus, singing; visus, sight; ūsus, use; from cáno (cant-), video (vis-), ūtor (ūs-).
- REMARK 1. Nouns of both forms, and of like signification, are frequently derived from the same verb; as, concursio and concursus, a running together; motio and motus, etc.
- REM. 2. Nouns formed by adding the termination are to the third root of a verb, sometimes have the same signification as those in io and us, and sometimes denote the result of an action; as, position; vinetura, a binding together; from pōwo, and vineto; and the termination ēla has sometimes the same meaning; as, querēla, complaint; loqueta, speech, from quēror and loquer.

Note. One of these forms is generally used to the exclusion of the others, and when two or more are found, they are usually employed in somewhat different senses.

8. The termination orium, added to the third root of a verb, denotes the place where the action of the verb is performed; as, auditorium, a lecture-room; conditionium, a repository; from audio and condo.

## COMPOSITION OF NOUNS.

## § 103. Compound nouns are formed variously:-

- 1. Of two nouns; as, rupicapra, a wild goat, of rupes and capra. In some words, compounded of two nouns, the former is a genitive; as, senatisconsultum, a decree of the senate; jurisconsultus, a lawyer; in others, both parts are declined; as, respublica, jusjurandum. See § 91.
- 2. Of a noun and a verb; as, artifex, an artist, of ars and fácio; fidicen, a harper, of fides and cáno; agricóla, a husbandman, of ager and cólo.

- 3. Of an adjective and a noun; as, æquinoctium, the equinox, of æquus and nox; millepēda, a millepēde, of mille and pes.
- In duumvir, triumvir, decemvir, centumvir, the numeral adjective is in the genitive plural.
- REMARK 1. When the former part of a compound word is a noun or an adjective, it usually ends in i; as, artifex, rupicapra, agricola, etc. If the second word begins with a vowel, an elision takes place; as, quinquennium, of quinque and annus; magnanimus, of magnus and annus; magnanimus, of magnus and animus.
- 4. Of an adverb and a noun; as, nefas, wickedness; nemo, nobody; of ne, fas, and homo. So biduum, of bis and dies.
- 5. Of a preposition and a noun: as, ineuria, want of care, of in and cāra. So intervallum, an interval; precordia, the diaphragm; proverbium, a proverb; substillum, a low seat; superficies, a surface.
- REM. 2. When the former part is a preposition, its final consonant is sometimes changed, to adapt it to that which follows it: as, ignobilis, illepidus, imprudentia, irrumpo, of in and nobilis, lepidus, etc. See § 196.

### ADJECTIVES.

§ 104. An adjective is a word which qualifies or limits the meaning of a substantive.

Adjectives may be divided, according to their signification, into various classes; as denoting,

- 1. Character or quality; as, bonus, good; albus, white; amīcus, friendly.
- 2. State or condition; as, felix, happy; dives, rich.
- 3. Possession; as, herilis, a master's; patrius, a father's.
- 4. Quantity; as, magnus, great; totus, entire; parrus, small.
- 5. Number; as, unus, one; secundus, second; tot, so many; quot, as many. These are called numerals.
- 6. Time; as, annuus, yearly; hesternus, of yesterday; bīmus, of two years; trimestris, of three months.
  - Place; as, altus, high; vicīnus, near; aērius, aērial; terrestris, terrestrial.
  - 8. Material; as, aureus, golden; fagineus, beechen; terrēnus, earthen.
- Part; as, nullus, no one; aliquis, some one. These are called partitives.
   Country; as, Romānus, Roman; Arpīnus of Arpīnum. These are called
- patrials.

  11. Diminution; as, parrilus, from parrus, small; misellus, from miser, miserable. These are called diminutives.
- 12. Amplification; as, vinosus and vinolentus, much given to wine; auritus, having long ears. These are called amplificatives.
- 13. Relation; as, dividus, desirous of; memor, mindful of; insuetus. These are called relatives.
- 14. Interrogation; as, quantus? how great; qualis? of what kind; quot? how many? qualis? of what number? These are called interrogatives; and, when not used interrogatively, they are called correlatives.
- 15. Specification; as, tālis, such; tantus, so great; tot, so many. These are called demonstratives.

### DECLENSION OF ADJECTIVES.

§ 105. 1. Adjectives are declined like substantives, and are either of the first and second declensions, or of the third only.

### ADJECTIVES OF THE FIRST AND SECOND DE-CLENSIONS.

2. The masculine of adjectives belonging to the first and second declensions, ends either in us or in er. The feminine and neuter are formed respectively by annexing a and um to the root of the masculine. The masculine in us is declined like dominus; that in er like gëner or ăger; the feminine always like mūsa; and the neuter like regnum.

REMARK 1. The masculine of one adjective, sătur, -ăra, -ărum, full, ends in ur, and is declined like  $g\'{e}ner$ .

### Bŏnŭs, good. Singular.

	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.	bo'-nŭs,	bo'-nă,	bo'-num,
G.	bo'-nī,	bo'-næ,	bo'-ni,
D.	boʻ-nō,	bo'-næ,	bo'-nō,
Ac.	bo'-nŭm,	bo'-năm,	bo'-nŭm,
V.	bo'-nĕ,	bo'-nà,	boʻ-nŭm,
Ab.	bo'-nō.	bo'-nā.	boʻ-nō.
		Plural.	
N.	bo'-nī,	bo'-næ,	bo'-nă,
G.	bo-nō'-rŭm,	bo-nā'-rūm,	bo-nō'-rŭm,
D.	boʻ-nis,	boʻ-nīs,	bo'-nīs,
Ac.	boʻ-nōs,	bo'-nās,	boʻ-nă,
V.	bo'-nī,	bo'-næ,	bo'-nă,
Ab.	bo'-nis.	bo'-nīs.	bo'-nīs.

#### In like manner decline

Al'-tus, high.	Fī'-dus, faithful.	Lon'-gus, long.
A-va'-rus, covetous.	Im'-pro-bus, wicked.	Ple'-nus, full.
Be-nig'-nus, kind.	In-i'-quus, unjust.	Tac'-i-tus, silent.

Rem. 2. Like bonus are also declined all participles in us; as,

A-mā'-tus. Am-a-tū'-rus. A-man'-dus.

Rem. 3. The masculine of the vocative singular of adjectives in us is sometimes like the nominative; as, O vir fortis adjue amicus. Hor. Meus has both mi and meus.

Rem. 4. The genitive plural of distributive numerals ends commonly in âm instead of ōrum; as, crassitādo binûm digitōrum. Plin.

### 3. Těner, tender.

### Singular.

	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.	te'-nĕr,	ten'-ĕ-ră,	ten'-ĕ-rŭm,
G.	ten'-ĕ-rī,	ten'-ĕ-ræ,	ten'-ĕ-rī,
D.	ten'-ĕ-rō,	ten'-ĕ-ræ,	ten'-ĕ-rō,
Ac.	ten'-ĕ-rŭm,	ten'-ĕ-răm,	ten'-ĕ-rŭm,
V.	te'-nĕr,	ten'-ĕ-ră,	ten'-ĕ-rŭm,
Ab.	ten'-ĕ-rö.	ten'-ĕ-rā.	ten'-ĕ-rō.
		Plural.	
N.	ten'-ĕ-rī,	ten'-ĕ-ræ,	ten'-ĕ-ră,
G.	ten-e-rō'-rŭm,	ten-e-rā'-rŭm,	ten-e-rō'-rum,
D.	ten'-ĕ-rīs,	ten'-ĕ-rīs,	ten'-ĕ-rīs,
Ac.	ten'-ĕ-rōs,	ten'-ĕ-rās,	ten'-ĕ-ră,
V.	ten -ĕ-rī,	ten'-ĕ-ræ,	ten'-ĕ-ră,
Ab.	ten'-ĕ-rīs.	ten'-č-rīs.	ten'-ĕ-rīs.

### In like manner are declined

As'-per, rough.	Lă'-cer, torn.	Pros'-per, prosperous.
Ex'-ter, foreign.	Lī'-ber, free.	Să'-tur, full.
Gib'-ber, crook-backed.	Mi'-ser, wretched.	

So also alter, except in the genitive and dative singular (see § 107), semifer, and the compounds of gero and fero; as, languer, opifer. Note. Prosper is less frequent than prosperus, and exter is scarcely used

in the nominative singular masculine. § 106. The other adjectives in er drop e in declension; as,

# Piger, slothful.

Ab.

pi'-gris.

		Singular.	
N. G. D. Ac. V. Ab.	Masc. pi'-gĕr, pi'-grī, pi'-grō, pi'-grūm, pi'-gĕr, pi'-gĕr,	Fem.  pi'-gră,  pi'-græ,  pi'-græ,  pi'-grăm,  pi'-gră,  pi'-grā.	Neut. pi'-grūm, pi'-grī, pi'-grō, pi'-grūm, pi'-grūm, pi'-grūm,
		Plural.	
N. G. D. Ac. V.	pi'-grī, pi-grō'-rŭm, pi'-grīs, pi'-grōs, pi'-grī,	pi'-græ, pi-grā'-rŭm, pi'-grīs, pi'-grās, pi'-græ,	pi'-gră, pi-grō'-rŭm, pi'-grīs, pi'-gră, pi'-gră,

pi'-grīs.

pi'-gris.

	ii iike iiikiiiiei deciiiie	
Æ'-ger, sick.	Mă'-cer, lean.	Sca'-ber, rough.
A'-ter, black.	Ni'-ger, black.	Si-nis'-ter, left.
Cre'-ber, frequent.	Pul'-cher, fair.	Te'-ter, foul.
Gla'-ber, smooth.	Ru'-ber, red.	Va'-fer, crafty.
In'-tĕ-ger, entire.	Sa'-cer, sacred.	

Sa'-cer, sacred. Dexter, right, has -tra, -trum, and less frequently -tera, -terum.

§ 107. Six adjectives in us, and three in er, have their genitive singular in ius, and their dative in i in all the genders :

binguiat in tuo,	and then dance	ir e, in air the genders.—
Alius, another.	Totus, whole.	Alter, -tera, -terum, the other.
Nullus, no one.	Ullus, any.	Uter, -tra, -trum, which of the two.
Solus, alone.	Unus, one.	Neuter, -tra, -trum, neither.

To these may be added the other compounds of uter, -namely, uterque, each of two; utercumque, uterlibet, and utervis, which of the two you please; gen. utriusque, etc .- also, alteruter, one of two; gen. alterutrius, and sometimes alterius utrius; dat. alterutri. So alteruterque, and unusquisque. See § 138, 4.

Nullus, solus, totus, ullus, and unus are thus declined :-

		Singular.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.	ū´-nŭs,	ū'-nă,	ū'-n ŭm,
G.	u-nĭ′-ŭs,*	u-nĭ'-ŭs,	u-nī'-ŭs,
D.	u'-nī,	n'-nī,	u'-nī,
Ac.	u'-nŭm,	u´-năm,	u'-nŭm,
V.	u'-nĕ,	u'-nă,	u´-nŭm,
Ab.	n'-nō.	ท′-ทลิ.	u'-nō.

The plural is regular, like that of bonus.

REMARK 1. Alius has aliud in the nominative and accusative singular neuter, and in the genitive alīus, contracted for alius.

REM. 2. Except in the genitive and dative singular, alter is declined like tener, and uter and neuter like muer.

REM. 3. Some of these adjectives, in early writers, and occasionally even in Cicero, Cæsar, and Nepos, form their genitive and dative regularly, like bonus, tener, or piger.

### ADJECTIVES OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

§ 108. Some adjectives of the third declension have three terminations in the nominative singular; some two; and others only one

I. Those of three terminations end in er, masc.; is, fem.; and e, neut.; and are thus declined:-

> Neut. ā'-crĕ, a'-cris. a'-crī. a'-crĕ.

a'-crĕ.

a'-cri.

	Acer, sharp.		
	S	ingular.	
	Masc.	Fem.	
N.	ā'-cĕr,	ā'-crīs,	
G.	a'-cris,	a'-cris,	
D.	a'-crī,	a´-erī,	
Ac.	a´-crĕm,	a´-crĕm,	
V.	a'-cĕr.	a´-cris.	

a'-crī.

Ab.

a'-crī.

#### Plural.

N.	a'-cres,	a'-crēs,	a´-cri-ă,
G.	a'-cri-um,	a'-cri-um,	a'-cri-ŭm,
D.	ac'-rĭ-bŭs,	ac'-rĭ-bŭs,	ac'-rĭ-bŭs,
Ac.	a'-crēs,	a´-crēs,	a'-cri-ă,
V.	a'-crēs,	a'-crēs,	a´-cri-ă,
Ab.	ac'-rĭ-bŭs.	ac'-ri-bŭs.	ac'-rĭ-bŭs.

In like manner are declined the following ;-

Al'-ŭeer, cheerful. Pa-lus'-ter, marsky.
Cam-pes'-ter, champaign.
Pe-des'-ter, on foot.
Pu'-ter, rotten.
Pu'-ter, rotten.
Sa-lu'-ber, viholesome.

To these add names of months in -ber, used as adjectives; as, October, etc. (cf. § 71), and coler, swift, which has celeris, celere; gen. celeris, etc.

REMARK 1. The termination or was anciently sometimes feminine; as, volucer finna. Petr.: and, on the other hand, the masculine often ends in is; as, collis sitestria, Cass.

REM. 2. Volucer has um in the genitive plural.

§ 109. II. Adjectives of two terminations end in is for the masculine and feminine, and e for the neuter, except comparatives, which end in or and us.

Those in is, e, are thus declined:-

### Mitis mild.

		Singular.		Plural.	
	M. & F.	N.		M. & F.	N.
N.	mi'-tĭs,	mi´-tĕ,	N.	mi'-tēs,	mit'-i-ă,*
G.	mi'-tĭs,	mi'-tĭs,		mit'-i-ŭm,*	
D.	mi'-tī,	mi'-ti,		mit'-ĭ-bŭs,	
	mi'-tĕm,	mi'-tĕ,		mi'-tēs,	mit'-i-ă,
	mi'-tĭs,	mi'-tĕ,		mi'-tēs,	
Ab.	mi´-ti.	mi′-tī₊	Ab.	mit'-ĭ-bŭs.	mit'-ĭ-bŭs.

#### In like manner decline

Ag´-1-lis, active. Dul'-cis, sweet. In-col'-ŭ-mis, safe.
Brĕ'-vis, short. For´-tis, brave. Mi-rab'-1-lis, wonderful.
Cru-dĕ'-lis, cruel. Gră'-vis, heavy. Om´-nis, all.

Tres, three, is declined like the plural of mītis.

Note. Several adjectives of this class have forms also in us, a, um. See § 116.

§ 110. (a.) All comparatives, except plus, more, are thus declined:—

<sup>\*</sup> Pronounced mish'-e-a, etc. See § 12.

### Mitior,\* milder.

Singul	

	M. & F.	N.
N.	M. & F. mit'-i-ŏr,	mit'-i-ŭs,
G.	mit-i-ō'-rĭs,	mit-i-ō'-ris,
D.	mit-i-ō'-rī,	mit-i-ō'-rī,
Ac.	mit-i-ō'-rĕm,	mit'-i-ŭs,
V.	mit'-i-ŏr,	mit'-i-ŭs,
Ab.	mit-i-ō'-rĕ, or -rī.	mit-i-ō'-rĕ, or -ri
	Plural.	
	MAF	N

	M. of $F$ .	N.
N.	mit-i-ō'-rēs,	mit-i-ō'-ră,
G.	mit-i-ō'-rŭm,	mit-i-ō'-rŭm,
D.	mit-i-or -i-bus,	mit-i-or'-i-bus.
Ac.	mit-i-ō´-rēs,	mit-i-ō'-ră,
V.	mit-i-ō'-rēs,	mit-i-ō'-ră,
Ab.	mit-i-or'-i-bus.	mit-i-or'-i-bus.

### In like manner decline

An into intention decem	
Dul'-ci-or, sweeter. Fe-lic'-i-or, happier. Fe-ro'-ci-or, fiercer. For'-ti-or, braver.	Gra'-vi-or, heavier. Pru-deu'-ti-or, more pru- dent. U-be'-ri-or, more fertile.
For -ti-or, braver.	U-be'-ri-or, more fertile.
	Dul'-ci-or, sweeter. Fe-lic'-i-or, happier.

### Plūs, more, is thus declined :-

Singular.	Plu	ral.
N. plus, G. plū'-rĭs, D, Ac. plus,	M. & F. N. plū'-rēs, G. plu'-ri-būs, D. plu'-ri-būs, Ac. plu'-rēs, V. ———,	N. plū'-rā, rarely plu'-ri-ā, plu'-ri-ūm, plu'-ri-būs, plū'-rā,
Ab. (plū'-re, obs.)	Ab. plu'-ri-bus.	plu'rī-b <b>ŭs.</b>

So, but in the plural number only, complures, a great many.

§ 111. III. Other adjectives of the third declension have but one termination in the nominative singular for all genders. They all end in l, r, s, or x, and increase in the genitive.

They are thus declined :-

### Fēlix, happy.

Singul	ar.
M. & F.	N.
N. fe'-lix,	fe'-lix,
G. fe-lī'-eĭs,	fe-lī'-cĭs,
D. fe-lī'-eī,	fe-lī'-cī,
Ac. fe-lī'-cem,	fe'-lix,
V. fe'-lix,	fe'-lix,
Ab. fe-li -cĕ, or -eī.	fe-li'-cĕ, or -cī.

<sup>\*</sup> Pronounced mish'-e-or, etc. See § 12.

### Plural '

	M. & F.	N.
N.	fe-lī'-cēs,	fe-lic'-i-ă,*
G.	fe-lic'-i-ŭm,*	fe-lic'-i-ŭm,
D.	fe-lic'-ĭ-bŭs,	fe-lic'-ĭ-bŭs,
Ac.	fe-lī'-cēs,	fe-lic'-i-ă,
V.	fc-lī'-cēs,	fe-lic'-i-ă,
Ab.	fe-lic'-i-bus.	fe-lic'-ĭ-bŭs.

### Præsens, present.

## Singular.

	171. 9 1.	74.
N.	præ'-sens,	præ'-sens,
G.	præ-sen'-tis,	præ-sen'-tīs,
D.	præ-sen'-tī,	præ-sen'-ti,
	præ-sen -těm,	præ'-sens,
V.	præ'-sens,	præ'-sens,

MERE

Ab. præ-sen'-tĕ, or-tī. præ-sen'-tĕ, or -tī.

### Plural.

N.	præ-sen'-tēs,	præ-sen'-ti-ă,†
G.	præ-sen'-ti-ŭm,	præ-sen'-ti-um,
D.	præ-sen'-ti-bus,	præ-sen'-ti-bŭs,
Ac.	præ-sen'-tēs,	præ-sen'-ti-ă,
V.	præ-sen'-tēs,	præ-sen'-ti-ă,
Ab.	præ-sen'-ti-bus.	præ-sen -ti-bús.

#### In like manner decline

Com'-pos, -ŏtis, master of. ticipant.	s, -ipis, par-
Fe'-rox, -ōcis, fierce. Præ'-pes, -	čtis, swift.  Sol'-lers, -tis, shrewd. Sos'-pes, -tis, safe. Sup'-plex, -leis, sup- pliant.

REMARK. All present participles are declined like præsens; as, A'-mans. Mo'-nens. Re'-gens. Ca'-pi-ens. An'-di-ens.

Note. A few adjectives of one termination have redundant forms in us, a. um; see § 116.

### RULES FOR THE OBLIQUE CASES OF ADJECTIVES OF THE THIRD DECLESSION.

#### GENITIVE SINGULAR.

§ 112. Most adjectives of the third declension form their genitive singular like nouns of the same termination.

The following may here be specified:-

1. Of those in es (cf. § 73) some have -etis; as, hebes, perpes, prapes, and teres; -inquies and locuples have -itis; -some have -itis; as, dives, sospes, and super-stes; -some have -idis; as, deses, and reses; -bipes, and tripes have -pedis; -pubes has pubëris, and impūbes, impubëris and impūbis.

<sup>\*</sup> Pronounced fe-lish'-e-um, etc. See § 10, Exc., and § 7., 3, (b.)

<sup>†</sup> Pronounced pre-zen'-she-a, etc

2. Compos and impos have -ótis, and exos, exossis.—Extex has exitois, pernox has permoctis (§ 78), procox, prococis, and redux, reducis.—Culebs has cullist, (§ 77); intercus, intercitis, and ettus, eteiris. Those in eps which are compounds of coput, have -cipitis; as, aneeps, proceps (§ 78, 1); but the compounds of corp have -fors; as, particips, participis.—Those in cors, compounds of cor, have -cordis; as, concors, concordis (§ 71, Exc. 2).—Mêmor and immémor have -óris.

### ABLATIVE SINGULAR.

§ 113. I. Adjectives which have e in the nominative singular neuter have only i in the ablative.

Exc. 1. The ablatives bimestre, cæleste, and perenne are found in Ovid, and cognomine in Virgil.

- Comparatives and participles in ns, when used as participles, especially in the ablative absolute, have rather e than i; but participial adjectives in ns have rather i than e.
  - 3. Adjectives of one termination have either e or i in the ablative.

Exc. 2. The following adjectives of one termination have only e in the ablative:—

Bicorpor, bipes, cælebs, compos, dēses, discülor, hospes, impos, impūbes, juvenis, locuples, pauper, princeps, puber or pūbes, senex, sospes, superstes, tricorpor, tricnspis, and tripes.

Exc. 3 . The following adjectives of one termination have only i in the ablative:—

Anceps, concors, discors, hobes, immomor, mers, ingens, mops, momor, par, preceps, rocens, ropens, vigil, and most adjectives in x, especially those in plex.

REM. 1. Inerte occurs in Ovid, recente in Ovid and Catullus, and pracipe in Ennius.

REM. 2. Prasens, when used of things, makes the ablative in i; when used of persons, it has e.

### NOMINATIVE, ACCUSATIVE, AND GENITIVE PLURAL.

- § **II.4.** 1. The neuter of the nominative and accusative plural ends in ia, and the genitive plural of all genders in ium; but comparatives in or, with  $v\bar{e}tus$ , old, and  $\bar{u}ber$ , ferfile, have a, and um.
- 2. The accusative plural of masculine and feminine adjectives, whose genitive plural ends in ium, anciently ended in is or  $\bar{\epsilon}is$ , instead of  $\bar{\epsilon}s$ . Cf. § 85, Exc. 1.
- Exc. 1. Those adjectives that have only  $\epsilon$  in the ablative singular, have um in the genitive plural.
- Exc. 2. Compounds of fácio, cápio, and of such nouns as make um in their genitive plural, with ciler, compar, cleur, dires, mêmor, immêmor, præpes, supplez, and vigil, make their genitive plural in um.

Exc. 3. Dis, locuples, sons, and insons have either um or ium. The poets and the later prose writers sometimes form the genitive plural of other adjectives and of participles in ns, by syncope, in um, instead of ium; as, calestum, Virg. Ovid, etc.

### IRREGULAR ADJECTIVES.

### § 115. Some adjectives are defective, others redundant.

### DEFECTIVE ADJECTIVES.

1. (a.) Many adjectives denoting personal qualities or attributes want the neuter gender, unless when occasionally joined to a neuter substantive used figuratively. Such are the following:—

Bicorpor, bīpes, cælebs, compos, consors, degener, dīves, impos, impūbes, industrius, Inops, insons, invitus, juvēnis, locuples, mēmor, pauper, particeps princeps, pūber, or pūbes, rēdux, sēnex, sons, sospes, superstes, supplex, tri-

corpor, vigil.

- (b.) Victrix and ultrix are feminine in the singular, seldom neuter; in the plural, they are feminine and neuter. Such verbals partake of the nature both of substantives and adjectives, and correspond to masculines in tor. See § 102, 5, (a.)
- 2. The following want the genitive plural, and are rarely used in the neuter gender:—

Concolor, deses, hebes, perpes, reses, teres, versicolor.

- 3. The names of months, which are properly adjectives, have only the masculine and feminine genders.
  - 4. Some adjectives are wholly indeclinable.

Such are frugi, temperate; nequam, worthless; sit or sit is, sufficient; the plurals alignot, iti, guot, tottlem, quotquot; and the cardinal numbers from quatu-or to centum inclusive, and also mille. Cf. § 118, 1, and 6, (6.)

5. The following adjectives are used only in certain cases: -

Bilicem, acc.; doubly-tissued. Cetera, ceterum, the rest, wants the nom. sing masc. Decemplicem, acc.: tenfold. Exspes, nom.; hopeless. Inquies, nom.; etem, acc.; ete, ab.; restless. Mactus, and nancte, nom.; macte, acc.; homorest; —macti, nom. plur. Necesse, and necessum, nom., acc.; necessary. Plus, nom., acc.: plus, gen.; more:—pl. plittes, a, nom. acc.; increasary. Plus, nom., acc.; plus, gen.; more:—pl. plittes, a, nom. acc.; increasary. Plus, nom., sing. and pl., all genders; able. Fote, nom. sing, for potest; possible. Septemplicis, gen.: -ce, obt.; seven-fold. Siremps, and sirempse, nom. and acc.; alike. Tantundem. nom. acc.; taultdem, gen.; tantandem, acc.; so much. Trilicem, acc.; trebly-dissued; trilices, nom. and acc. pl.

### REDUNDANT ADJECTIVES.

 $\S$  116. The following adjectives are redundant in termination and declension. Those marked r are more rarely used.

Acclivis, and -us, r, ascending.
Auxiliaris, and -us, auxiliary.
Bijūgis, and -us, poked two together.
Declivis, and -us, r, descending.
Exuminis, and -us, r, bifeless.
Hilaris, and -us, cheerful.
Imbecillis, r, and -us, evak.
Impūbes, and -is, r, -is or -ēris, not
grown vp.
Inermis, and -us, r, unarmed.
Intrēnis, and -us, unbridled.

Inquies, and -ētus, restless.
Joculāris, and -ius, r, laughable.
Multijūgis, r, and -us, yoked many together.

Optilens, and -lentus, rich.
Præcox, -cŏquis, and -cŏquus, early
ripe.
Proclivis, and -us, r, sloping.

Quadrijūgis, and -us, yoked four together. Semianimis. and -us, half alive. Semiermis, and -us, half armed. Semisomnis, and -us, r, half asleep. Singularis, and -ius, single. Sublīmis, and -us, r, high.
Unanīmis, r, and -us, unanimous.
Viŏlens, r, and -lentus, violent.

To these may be added some adjectives in er and is; as, saluber and -bris, celiber and -bris. Cf. § 108, R. 1.

### NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

§ 117. Numeral adjectives are divided into three principal classes—Cardinal, Ordinal, and Distributive.

I. Cardinal numbers are those which simply denote the number of things, in answer to the question Quot? 'How many?' They are,

1.	Unus,	one.	I.
	Duo,	tivo.	II.
	Tres,	three.	III.
	Quatuor,	four.	IIII. or IV.
	Quinque,	fire.	V.
6.	Sex,	six.	VI.
	Septem,	seven.	VII.
	Octo,	eight	VIII.
	Novem,	nine.	VIIII. or IX.
	Děcem,	ten.	Χ.
	Undecim,	eleven.	XI.
	Duoděcim,	twelve.	XII.
	Tredecim,	thirteen.	XIII.
74.	Quatuordeeim,	fourteen.	XIIII. or XIV.
75.	Quindecim,	fifteen.	XV.
	Sedecim, or sexdecim,	sixteen,	XVI.
	Septenděcim,	serenteen.	XVII.
	Octodecim,	eighteen. s	XVIII.
	Novenděcim,	ninetcen.	XVIIII. or XIX.
	Viginti,	twenty.	XX.
21.	Viginti unus, or )	•	XXI.
	unus et viginti, }	twenty-one.	22.21.
22.	Viginti due, or 1	ticenty-two.	XXII.
	duo et viginti, etc., }	-	
20,	Trīginta,	thirty.	XXX.
40.	Quadraginta,	forty.	XXXX. or XL.
	Quinquaginta,	fifty.	_ L.
	Sexaginta,	sixty.	LX.
	Septuaginta,	seventy.	LXX.
80.	Octoginta, or octnaginta,	eighty.	LXXX.
90.	Nōnāginta,	ninety.	LXXXX. or XC.
	Centum,	a hundred.	С,
	Centum unus, or }	a hundred and me.	CI.
cen	tum et unus, etc., )		
200.	Ducenti, -æ, a, Trecenti, etc.,	two hundred.	CC.
300.	Trecenti, etc.,	three hundred.	CCC.
	Quadringenti,	four hundred.	CCCC, or CD.
500.	Quingenti,	five hundred.	D, or D.
	Sexcenti,	six hundred.	Lyce, or De.
	Septingenti,	seren hundred.	Lace, or Dec.
500.	Octmeenti,	eight hundred.	Lacecc, or Deec.
	Nongenti,	nine hundred. a thousand.	DCCCC, or DCCCC.
	Mille,	t mousand.	CIO, or M.
2000.	Due millia, or	two thousand.	CIDCID, or MM.
	bis mille,		

5000.	Quinque millia, or } quinquies mille, }	fice thousand.	.cci
10000.	Decem millia, or i	ten thousand.	ccioo.
50000.	Quinquaginta millia, or quinquagies mille,	fifty thousand.	iooo.
100000.	Centum millia, or { centies mille, }	a hundred thousand.	ccciooo.

§ 118. 1. The first three cardinal numbers are declined; from four to a hundred inclusive they are indeclinable; those denoting hundreds are declined like the plural of bonus.

For the declension of unus and tres, see §§ 107 and 109.

Duo is thus declined :-

Plural.	
$F_{\bullet}$	N.
du′-æ,	du'-0,
du-ā'-rum,	du-ö'-rum
du-ā'-bus,	du-ō'-bus,
'-o, du'-as,	dn'-0,
du'-æ,	du'-0,
du-ā'-bus.	du-ô'-bus.
	F. du'-æ, du-ā'-rum, du-ā'-bus, '-o, du'-as,

REMARK 1. Duòrum, duārum, are often contracted into duâm, especially in compounds; as duâmrir, and when joined with millium.—Ambo, both, which partakes of the nature of a numeral and of a pronoun, is declined like duo.

2. The cardinal numbers, except  $\bar{u}nus$  and mille, are used in the plural only.

Rem. 2. The plural of unus is used with nouns which have no singular, or whose singular has a different sense from the plural; as, unen unutica, one mariage; una castra, one camp. It is used also with nouns denoting several things considered as one whole; us, una restimenta, one suit of clothes. So, also, when it takes the signification of "alone" or "the same"; as, uni Ubii, the Ubians alone; unis morbius vivêre,—with the same manners.

3. (a.) Thirteen, sixteen, seventeen, eighteen, and nineteen, are often expressed by two numbers, the greater of which usually precedes, united by et; thus. dècem et tres, dècem et nôvem, or, omitting et, dècem nôvem. Octodècim has no good authority. See infra, 4.

(b) From twenty to a hundred, the smaller number with et is put first, or the greater without et; as, unus et rigini, or riginit unus. Above one hundred, the greater precedes, with or without et; as, centum et unus, or centum unus, trecenit sexaginta sex, or trecenit et sexaginta sex. Et is never twice used, but the poets sometimes take ac, aque, or que, instead of et.

4. For eighteen, twenty-eight, etc., and for nineteen, twenty-nine, etc. (excepting sixty-eight, sixty-nine, and ninety-eight, a subtractive expression is more frequent than the additive form; as, duodeviginti, two from twenty; undeviginti, one from twenty; undeviginti, medicing, etc. Neither un (unus) nor duo can be declined in these combinations. The additive forms for thirty-eight, etc. to ninety-eight, and for forty-nine, etc. to ninety-nine, except those for sixty-nine, seem not to occur.

5. (a.) Thousands are generally expressed by prefixing the smaller cardinal numbers to millia; as, decem millia, ten thousand; ducenta millia, two hundred thousand. As there is in Latin no unit above mille, a thousand, the higher units of modern numeration are expressed by prefixing the numeral adverbs to the

combination centina millia; as, decies centina millia, a million; centies centina millia, ten millions. In such combinations centina millia is sometimes omitted; as, decies, scil. centina millia.

(b.) The poets sometimes make use of numeral adverbs in expressing smaller numbers; as, bis sex for duodécim; bis centum for ducenti, etc.

### 6. Mille is used either as a substantive or as an adjective.

- (a.) When taken substantively, it is indeclinable in the singular number, and, in the plural, has millia, milliam, milliam, etc.; as, mille hominum, as thousand men; dow millia hominum, two thousand men; etc. When mille is a substantive, the things numbered are put in the genitive, as in the preceding examples, unless a declined numeral comes between; as, hobuit tria millia trecentos millia tria.
- (b.) As an adjective, mille is plural only, and indeclinable: as, mille homines, a thousand men; cum bis mille hominibus, with two thousand men.
- 7. Capitals were used by the Romans to mark numbers. The letters employed for this purpose were C. I. L. V. X., which are, therefore, called Numeral Letters. I. denotes one; V. fiee; X. ten; L. fifty; and C. a hundred. By the various combinations of these five letters, all the different numbers are expressed.
- (a.) The repetition of a numeral letter repeats its value. Thus, II. signifies two; III. three; XX. twenty; XXX. thirty; CC. two hundred, etc. But V. and L. are never repeated.
- (b.) When a letter of a less value is placed before a letter of a greater value, the less takes away its value from the greater; but being placed after, it adds its value to the greater; thus,

 IV. Four.
 V. Five.
 YI. Six.

 IX. Nine.
 X. Ten.
 XI. Eleven.

 XL. Forty.
 L. Fifty.
 LX. Sixty.

 XC. Ninety.
 C. A hundred.
 CX. A hundred and ten.

(c.) A thousand was marked thus, CIO, which, in later times, was contracted into M. Five hundred is marked thus, IO, or, by contraction, D.

(d.) The annexing of the apostrophus or inverted C(O) to IO makes its value ten times greater; thus, IOO marks five thousand; and IOOO, fifty thousand.

- (e.) The prefixing of C, together with the annexing of O, to the number CIO, makes its value ten times greater; thus, CCIOO denotes ten thousand; and CCCIOOO, a hundred thousand. The Romans, according to Pliny, proceeded no further in this method of notation. If they had occasion to express a larger number, they did it by repetition; thus, CCCIOOO, CCCIOOO, signified two hundred thousand, etc.
- (f.) We sometimes find thousands expressed by a straight line drawn over the top of the numeral letters. Thus,  $\overline{\Pi}$ L denotes three thousand;  $\overline{X}$ , ten thousand.
- § 119. II. Ordinal numbers are such as denote order or rank, and answer to the question, Quõtus? Which of the numbers? They all end in us, and are declined like bŏnus; as, prīmus, first; secundus, second.
- III. Distributive numbers are those which indicate an equal division among several persons or things, and answer to the question, Quotent? How many apiece? as, singūti, one by one, or, one to each; bīni, two by two, or two to each, etc. They are always used in the plural, and are declined like the plural of bōnus, except that they usually have &m instead of orum in the genitive plural. Cf. § 105, R. 4.

The following table contains the ordinal and distributive numbers, and the corresponding numeral adverbs, which abswer to the question, Quoties? How

	times? —	ros, which answer to the q	desilon, Quoties? In
	Ordinal.	Distributive.	Numeral Adverbs.
1.	Prīmus, first.	Singuli, one by one.	Semel, once.
2.	Secundus, second.	Bīni, two by two.	Bis, twice.
3.	Tertius, third.	Terni, or trīni.	Ter, thrice.
4.	Quartus, fourth.	Quaterni.	Quater, four times
5.	Quintus, fifth.	Quīni.	Quinquies.
6.	Sextus, sixth.	Sēni.	Sexies.
7.	Septimus, seventh.	Septēni.	Septies.
8.	Octāvus, eighth.	Octōni.	Octies.
9.	Nonus, ninth.	Noveni.	Novies.
10.	Děcimus, tenth, etc.	Dēni.	Děcies.
11.	Undecimus.	Undēni.	Undecies.
12.	Duodecimus.	Duodēni.	Duodecies.
13.	Tertius decimus.	Terni deni.	Terdecies.
14.	Quartus decimus.	Quaterni deni.	Quatuordecies.
15.	Quintus decimus.	Quini deni.	Quindecies.
16.	Sextus decimus.	Sēni dēni.	Sedecies.
17.	Septīmus decimus.	Septēni dēni.	Decies et septies.
18.	Octāvus decimus.	Octoni deni.	Duodevicies.
19.	Nonus decimus.	Novēni dēni.	Undevicies.
	Mr. Jerona	Vicēni.	Vīcies.
21.	Vicesimus primus.	Vicēni singūli.	Semel et vicies.
22.	Vicesimus secundus.	Viceni bīni, etc.	Bis et vicies, etc.
. (	Tricesimus, or		
99.	trigesimus.	Trīcēni.	Tricles.
40.	Quādrāgesīmus.	Quadragēni.	Quadragies.
50.	QuinquagesImus.	Quinquagêni.	Quinquagies.
60.	Sexagesimus.	Sexagēni.	Sexagies.
70.	Septuagesimus.	Septuagēni.	Septuagies.
80.	Octogesimus.	Octogěni.	Octogies.
90.	Nonagesinius.	Nonagēni.	Nonagies.
100.	Centesimus.	Centěni.	Centies.
200.	Dúcentesimus.	Ducēni.	Ducenties.
300.	Trecentesimus.	Trecēni, or trecentēni.	Trecenties, or tricenties.
400.	Quadringentesĭmus.	{ Quadringēni, or quadringentēni. }	Quadringenties.
500.	Quingentesīmus.	Quingēni.	Quingenties.
600.	Sexcentesimus.	Sexcēni, or sexcentēni.	Sexcenties.
700.	Septingentesimus.	Septingeni.	Septingentics.
800.	Octingentesimus.	Octingeni.	Octingenties.
900.	Nongentesimus.	Nongēni.	Noningenties.
		Milleni, or	
1000.	Millesimus.	singŭla millia.	Millies.
2000	Dia sisilla atauna	Bis millēni, or (	D::11:
2000.	Bis millesīmus.	home million	Bis millies.

bīna millia. § 120. 1. In the ordinals, instead of primus, prior is used, if only two are spoken of. Alter is often used for secundus.

2. (a.) From thirteenth to nineteenth, the smaller number, is usually put first, without et; as, tertius decimus, but sometimes the greater with or without

et; as, decimus et tertius, or decimus tertius.

(b.) Twenty-first, thirty-first, etc., are often expressed by unus et vicesimus, unus et tricesimus, etc., one and twentieth, etc.; and twenty-second, etc., by duo, or alter et vicesimus, etc., in which duo is not changed. In the other compound numbers, the larger precedes without et, or the smaller with et; as, vicestmus quartus, or quartus et vicesimus.

- (c.) For eighteenth, etc., to fifty-eighth, and for nineteenth, etc. to fifty-ninth, the subtractive forms, duodericesimus, etc., and undericesimus, etc., are often used.
- In the distributives, eighteen, thirty-eight, forty-eight, and nineteen and twenty-nine, are often expressed by the subtractives duodeviceni, etc., undeviceni, etc.
- 4. (a.) Distributives are sometimes used by the poets for cardinal numbers; as, bina spicula, two darts. Virg. So likewise in prose, with nouns that want the singular; as, bina nuptia, two weddings.
- (b.) The singular of some distributives is used in the sense of multiplicatives; as, binus, twofold. So ternus, quinus, septenus.
- 5. In the numeral adverbs, for the intermediate numbers 21, 22, etc., the larger number also may be put first, either with or without et; and for twenty-eight times and thirty-nine times, duodetricies and undequadragies are found.
  - § 121. To the preceding classes may be added the following:-
- Multiplicatives, which denote how many fold, in answer to the question, quotiplex? They all end in plex, and are declined like felix; as,

Simplex, single.
Duplex, twofold, or double.
Triplex, threefold.
Quadruplex, fourfold.

Quincuplex, fivefold. Septemplex, sevenfold. Decemplex, tenfold. Centuplex, a hundred fold.

- 2. Proportionals, which denote how many times one thing is greater than another; as, diplus, a, um, twice as great; so triplus, quadriplus, octuplus, deciplus. They are generally found only in the neuter.
- 3. Temporals, which denote time; as, binus, a, um, two years old; so trimus, quadrinus, etc. Also, biennis, lasting two years, biennial; so quadriennis, quinquennis, etc. So also, binestris, of two months' continuance; trimestris, etc., biduus, etc. To these may be added certain nouns, compounds of annus and dies with the cardinal numbers; as, biennium, triennium, etc., a period of two, etc. days.
- Adjectives in arius, derived from the distributives, and denoting of how many equal parts or units a thing consists; as, binarius, of two parts; ternarius, etc.
- 5. Interrogatives; as, quot, how many? quôtus, of what number? quoties, how many times? Their correlatives are tot, totidem, so many; allquot, sone; which, with quot, are indeclinable; and the adverbs, toties, so often; aliquoties, several times.
- 6. Fractional expressions, which denote the parts of a thing. These are expressed in Latin by pars with dimidia, tertia, quarta, etc. Thus, \$\frac{1}{2}\$, dimidia pars; \$\frac{1}{2}\$, \text{text} pars, etc. When the number of parts into which a thing is divided exceeds by one only the parts mentioned, as in \$\frac{1}{2}\$, \$\frac{1}{2}\$, etc. the fraction is expressed simply by dua, tres, etc. partes, denoting two ont of three, three out of four, etc.

#### COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

§ 122. 1. Adjectives may be divided into two classes—those which denote a variable, and those which denote an invariable, quality or limitation.

Thus, bōnus, good, altus, high, and opācus, dark, denote variable attributes; but aneus, brazen, triplex, threefold, and diurnus, daily, do not admit of different degrees in their signification.

2. The comparison of an adjective is the expression of its quality in different degrees.

- 3. There are three degrees of comparison—the positive, the comparative, and the superlative.
- 4. The positive simply denotes a quality, without reference to other degrees of the same quality; as, altus, high; mītis, mild.
- 5. The comparative denotes that a quality belongs to one of two objects, or sets of objects, in a greater degree than to the other; as, altior, higher; miltior, milder.
- The superlative denotes that a quality belongs to one of several objects, or sets of objects, in a greater degree than to any of the rest; as, altissimus, highest; milissimus, mildest.
- REM 1. Sometimes also the comparative denotes that a quality, at different times or in other circumstances, belongs in different degrees to the same object; as, est sapientior quam fuil, he is wiser than he was.
- REM. 2. The comparative sometimes expresses the proportion between two qualities of the same object; as, est doction quain sapiention, he is more learned than wise; that is, his learning is greater than his wisdom.
- REM. 3. The comparative is also used elliptically instead of our 'too' or 'rather'; as, vivil liberius, he lives too freely, or, rather freely. Cf. § 256, R. 9.
- REM. 4. The superlative, like the positive with per, (cf. § 127, 2), often indicates a high degree of a quality without direct comparison with the same quality in other objects; as, amicus carissimus, a very dear friend.
- § 123. 1. Degrees of a quality inferior to the positive may be denoted by the adverbs minus, less; minime, lenst, prefixed to the positive; as, jucundus, pleasant; minus jucundus, less pleasant;
- 2. A small degree of a quality is indicated by sub prefixed to the positive; as, amārus, bitter; subamārus, bitterish, or, somewhat bitter.
- 3. An equal degree of a quality may be denoted by tam followed by quam, court followed by ac, sic followed by ut, etc.; as, hébes, aque ac pêcus, as stupid as a brute.
- § 124. 1. The comparative and superlative in Latin, as in English, are denoted either by peculiar terminations, or by certain adverbs prefixed to the positive. Ct. § 127, 1.
- 2. The terminational comparative ends in ior, ior, iors; the terminational superlative in issimus, issimua, issimum.
  - 3. These terminations are added to the root of the positive; as, altus. altios. altissimus: high, higher, highest.

altus, altior, altissimus; high, higher, highest.
mitis, mitior, mitissimus; mild, milder, mildest.
felix, (gen. felicis.) felicior, felicissimus; happy, happier, happiest.

In like manner compare

Arc'-tus, strait. Cru-dê'-lis, cruel. Că'-pax, capacious. Ca'-nus, dear. Fer-d-lis, ferille. Cle'-mens, (gen.-tis), merciful. Doc'-tus, learned. Le'-vis, light. In'-crs, (gen.-tis), sluggish.

### IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

§ 125. 1. Adjectives in *er* form their superlative by adding rimus to that termination; as, ācer, active; gen. acris; comparative, acrior; superlative, acerrimus.

In like manner, pauper, pauperrimus. Vétus has a similar superlative, veterrimus, from the old collateral form veter.

2. Six adjectives in lis form their superlative by adding limus to the root:—

1	Facilis,	facilior,	facillimus,	easy.
1	Difficilis,	difficilior,	difficillimus,	difficult.
1	Gracilis,	gracilior,	gracillimus,	stender.
Į.	Humilis.	humilior,	numillimus,	low.
1	Similis,	similior,	simillimus,	like.
,	Dissimilis,	dissimilior,	dissimillimus,	unlike.

Imbecillus or imbecillis, weak, has two forms, imbecillissimus and imbecillimus.

3. (a.) Five adjectives in ficus (from facio) derive their comparatives and superlatives from supposed forms in ens:—

Per land Security Links	Beneficus,	beneficentior,	beneficentissimus,	beneficent.
	Honorificus,	honorificentior,	honorificentissimus,	honorable.
	Magnificus,	magnificentior,	magnificentissimus,	splendid.
	Munificus,	munificentior,	munificentissimus,	liberal.
the same	Maleficus,		maleficentissimus,	hurtful.

"(b.) Adjectives in dicens and volens form their comparatives and superlatives regularly; but instead of those positives, forms in dicus and volus are more common; as,

Maledicens or dicus, maledicentior, maledicentissimus, slanderous.

Benevolens, or -völus, benevolentior, benevolentissimus, benevolent.

 These five have regular comparatives, but irregular superlatives:—

Dexter,	dexterior,	dextinus,	right.
Extera, (fem.)	exterior,	extrēmus, or extimus,	outwar <b>d.</b>
Postera, (fem.)	posterior,	postrēmus, or postumus,	hind.
Inferus,	inferior.	infimus, or imus,	below.
Superus,	superior,	suprēmus, or summus,	abore.
10 1 TPL		In a Company door was annu	m to also so

REMARK 1. The nominative singular of postera does not occur in the masculine, and that of extera wants good authority.

5. The following are very irregular in comparison :-

Bŏnus, Mālus, Magnus,	melior, pējor, mājor,	optīmus, pessīmus, maxīmus,	good, bad, great.	better, worse, greater.	best. worst. greatest.
Parvus, Multus,	minor,	minimus, plurimus,	little,	less,	least.
Multa,		plurima, }	much,	more,	most.
Multum, Nêquam, Frûgi,	plus,* nequior, frugalior,	plurimum, ) nequissimus, frugalissimus,	worthles frugal,		

Rem. 2. All these, except magnus, whose regular forms are contracted, either form their comparatives and superlatives from obsolete adjectives, or take them from other words of similar signification.

### DEFECTIVE COMPARISON.

### § 126. 1. Seven adjectives want the positive:—

Citerior, citimus, nearer. Prior Deterior, deterrinus, worse. Prop Interior, intimus, inner. Ulte Ocior, ocisimus, swifter.

Prior, primus, former. Propior, proximus, nearer. Ulterior, ultimus, farther.

### 2. Eight want the terminational comparative:-

Consultus, consultissimus, skilful. Inclutus, inclutissimus, renovmed. Invictus, invictissimus, invincible. Invitus, invincible. Invitus, invitissimus, unwilling. Meritus, meritissimus, (very rare,) deserving.

Par, parissīmus, (very rare), equal. Persuāsus, persuasissīmum (neuter), persuaded. Sācer, sacerrīmus, sacred.

### 3. Eight have very rarely the terminational comparative:-

Apricus, apricissimus, sunny.
Bellus, bellissimus, fine.
Comis, comissimus, courteous.
Diversus, diversissimus, different.

Falsus, falsissimus, false. Fīdus, fidissīmus, faithful. Novus, novissīmus, new. Vētus, veterrīmus, old.

### 4. The following want the terminational superlative :-

Adolescens, adolescentior, young. Agrestis, agrestior, rustic. Alacer, alacrior, active. Alacer, alacrior, active. Ater, atrior, black. Caeus, excitor, blind. Dises, desidior, inactive. Diuturius, diuturnior, lasting. Infinitus, infinitior, unlimited. Ingens, ingentior, yreat. Jejūmis, jejūmior, fasting. Juvēnis, junior, young. Licens, licentior, unrestrained. Longinquis, longinquior, distant. Opinus, opinior, rich.

Proclivis, proclivior, sloping.
Profins, pronior, bending down.
Protervus, protervior, violent.
— sequior, worse.
Propinquus, propinquior, near.
Salutāris, salutarior, salutary.
Saits, saluterior, salut.
Saits, saturior, full.
Scienx, senior, old.
Silvestris, silvestrior, woody.
Sinister, sinisterior, left.
Supinus, supinior, lying on the back.
Surdus, surdior, deaf.
Teres, teretior, round.

REMARK 1. The superlative of juvenis and adolescens is supplied by minimus mit, youngest; and that of senex by maximus natu, oldest. The comparatives allow natu and mijor natu sometimes also occur.

REM. 2. Most adjectives also in ilis, ilis, ālis, and bilis, have no terminational superlative.

5. Many variable adjectives have no terminational comparative or superlative. Such are,

(a.) Adjectives in bundus, trus, inus (except dirinus), ōrus, most in trus, and in us pure (except -quus.) Yet ardaus, assiduus, egregius, exiguus, industrius, perpetuus, pus, strenuar, and vacaus, have sometimes a terminational comparison. So, dropping i, nazior, inaccior, sobrior.

(b.) The following—almus, calvus, cānus, cicur, claudus, degēner, delirus, dispar, egēnus, impar, implyer, incidus, licer, mēnor, mīrus, nūdus, præcoz, præditus, rūdis, salvus, soopes, superstes, sudgārā, und some others.

§ 127. 1. The comparative and superlative may also be formed by prefixing to the positive the adverbs magis, more, and maxime, most; as, idoneus, fit; magis idoneus, maxime idoneus.

2. Various degrees of a quality above the positive are expressed by admödum, aliquanto, apprime, bene, imprimis, multum, oppido, perquam, and valde, and also by per compounded with the positive; as, difficults, difficult; perdifficilis, very difficult. To a few adjectives praise in like manner prefixed; as, praedūrus, very hard.

3. The force of the comparative is increased by prefixing etiam, even, still, or yet; and that of both comparative and superlative, by

prefixing longe or multo, much, far; as, longe nobiliss imus; longe melior, iter multo facilius; multo maxima pars.

4. Vel, 'even', and quam, with or without possum, 'as much as possible', before the superlative, render it more emphatic; as, Cicëro vel optimus oratōrum Romanōrum. Quam maxīmum potest milītum numērum collīgit; quam doctissīmus, extremely learned; quam celerrīme, as speedily as possible.

NOTE 1. Instead of quam with possum, quantus is sometimes used, in the same case as the superlative; as, Quantis maximis potuit itineribus contendit.

Note 2. Unus, with or without omnium, is sometimes added to superlatives to increase their force; as, Hoc ego ano omnium plurimum utor. Cic. Urbem anam mihi amicissimum declinari, Id.—It is used in like manner with excello.

 All adjectives whose signification admits of different degrees, if they have no terminational comparison, may be compared by means of adverbs.

6. Instead of the comparative and superlative degrees, the positive with the prepositions prve, ante, practer, or supra, is sometimes used; as, prve nobis beatus, happier than we. Cic. Ante alias pulchritudine insignis, most beautiful. Liv. Sometimes the proposition is used in connection with the superlative; as, Ante alias pulcherrimus owners. Virg.

7. Among adjectives which denote an invariable quality or limitation, and which, therefore, cannot be compared, are those denoting matter, time, number, possession, country, part, interrogation; also compounds of jügum, somnus, gēro, and füro, and many others.

### DERIVATION OF ADJECTIVES.

- § 128. Derivative adjectives are formed chiefly from nouns, from other adjectives, and from verbs.
- I. Those derived from nouns and adjectives are called denominatives. The following are the principal classes:—
- (a.) The termination & s, added to the root, denotes the material of which
  a thing is made, and sometimes similarity; as, nureus, golden; argenteus, of
  silver; ligneus, wooden; vitreus, of glass; rirgineus, maidenly; from aurum, argentum, etc. See § 9, Rem. 3.
- (b.) Some adjectives of this kind have a double form in neus and nus; as, eburneus and eburnus, of ivory.
- (c.) The termination inus has the same meaning; as, adamantinus, of adamant; cedrinus, of cedur; from adamas and cedrus. So, also, énus; as, terrênus, of earth, from terra.
- (d.) The termination ε̄θ̄s or Ius (Greek ucc), and also teus, belong to adjectives formed from Greek names of men, and denote 'of' or 'pertajning to'; as, Achilleus, Soyloctvas, Avistotelus, Plutonicus; Pythogoreus and Pythogoreus; Homerius and Homericus. Xames in ios make adjectives in ideus; as, Archiago. Sometimes, though rarely in the purest Latin authors, adjectives in ε̄us or Ius are formed from Latin names; as, Marcellia or -ε̄a, a festival in honor of the Marcelli.
- (a.) The terminations ālis, āris, ārius, ilis, attlis, īcius, īcus, ius, čūs, and īnus, denote 'belonging' 'pertaining,' or 'relating to '; as, capitālis, relating to the life; from caput.

So comitiālis, regālis; Apollināris, consulāris, populāris; argentarius; civīlis, hostilis, juvenilis; aquatilis, fluviatilis; tribunicius, patricius; bellicus, ciricus, Germanicus; accusatorius, imperatorius, regius; Hectoreus; caninus, equinus, ferinus, masculinus: from comitia, rex, Apollo, consul, populus, argentum, civis, etc.

(b.) The termination ilis sometimes expresses character; as, hostilis, hostile; puerilis, bovish; from hostis and puer.

(c.) The termination mus belongs especially to derivatives from names of animals, and other living beings.

3. The termination arius, as a substantive, seil. faber, etc., generally denotes profession or occupation; as, argentarius, a silversmith; from argentum;coriarius, statuarius; from corium and statua. When added to numeral adjectives, it denotes how many equal parts a thing contains. See § 121, 4.

4. The terminations osus and lentus denote abundance, fulness; as, animosus, full of courage; fraudulentus, given to fraud; from animus and fraus. So lapidosus, vinosus, portuosus, turbulentus, sanguinolentus, violentus. Before lentus, a connecting vowel is inserted, which is commonly i, but sometimes o.

Note. - Adjectives of this class are called amplificatives. See § 104, 12.

5. From adjectives are formed diminutives in ulus, culus, etc., in the same manner as from nouns; as, dulciculus, sweetish; from dulcis. So lentulus, misellus, parvulus, etc. See § 100, 3, and § 104, 11. Diminutives are sometimes formed from comparatives; as, majusculus, duriusculus, somewhat great, somewhat hard, etc. Double diminutives are formed from paucus, viz pauxillus and pauxillulus; and from bonus, (benus) are formed bellus and bellulus.

6. (a.) From the names of places, and especially of towns, are derived patrial adjectives in eusis, inus, as, and anus, denoting of or belonging to such

(b.) Thus from Cannæ is formed Cannensis; from Sulmo, Sulmonensis. In like manner, from castra and circus come castrensis, circensis. But Athenas makes Atheniensis; and some Greek towns in ia and ea drop i and e in their adjectives; as, Antiochensis, Nicomedensis.

(c.) Those in inus are formed from names of places ending in ia and ium; as, Aricia, Aricinus; Caudium, Caudinus; Capitolium, Capitolinus; Latium, Latinus. Some names of towns, of Greek origin, with other terminations, also form adjectives in inus; as, Tarentum, Tarentinus.

(d.) Most of those in as are formed from nouns in um; some from nouns in

a; as, Arpinum, Arpinas; Capina, Capinas.
(e.) Those in anus are formed from names of towns of the first declension, or from certain common nouns; as, Alba, Albanus; Roma, Romanus; Cuma, Cumānus; Thēbæ, Thēbānus; also from some of the second declension; as, Tusculum, Tusculānus; Fundi, Fundānus:—fons, fontānus; mons, montānus; urbs, urbānus: oppidum, oppidanus.

(f.) Adjectives with the terminations anus, ianus, and inus are formed from names of men; as, Sulla, Sullanus; Tullius, Tullianus; Jugurtha, Jugurthinus.

(g.) Greek names of towns in polis form patrial adjectives in politanus; as, Neapolis, Neapolitānus.

(h.) Greek names of towns generally form patrials in ins; as, Rhodus, Rhodius; Lacedemon, Lacedemonius; -but those in a form them in aus; as, Larissa, Larissæus; Smyrna, Smyrnæus.

(i.) From many patrials; as, Britannus, Gallus, Afer, Persa, Arabs, etc., adjectives are formed in true and us; as, Britannicus, Gallicus, Africus, Persicus, Arabicus; so Sprus, Syrius; Thrax, Thracius.

7. A large class of derivative adjectives, though formed from nouns, have the terminations of perfect participles. They generally signify wearing or furnished with; as,

alātus, winged; barbātus, bearded; galeātus, helmeted; aurītus, long-eared; turritus, turreted; cornutus, horned; from ala, barba, galea, auris, etc.

- 8. The termination aneus, annexed to the root of an adjective or participle in us, expresses a resemblance to the quality denoted by the primitive; as, supervacaneus, of a superfluous nature.
- § 129. II. Adjectives derived from verbs are called verbal adjectives. Such are the following classes:—
- 1. The termination bundus, added to the first root of the verb, with a connecting vowel, which is commonly that of the verb, (see § 150, 5,) has the general meaning of the present participle; as,

errābundus, moribundus, from erro, morior, equivalent to errans, moriens.

- (a.) In many the meaning is somewhat strengthened; as,  $gratul\bar{a}bundus$ , full of congratulations;  $lacrim\bar{a}bundus$ , weeping profusely.
- (b.) Most verbals in bundus are from verbs of the first conjugation, a few from those of the third, and but one from the second and fourth respectively, viz. pudbundus and lascivibundus.
- (c.) Some verbal adjectives in cundus have a similar sense; as, rubicundus, verécundus, from rubeo and vereor.
- 2. The termination *idus*, added to the root, especially of neuter verbs, denotes the quality or state expressed by the verb; as,
- algidus, cold; calidus, warm; madidus, moist; rapidus, rapid; from algeo, caleo, madeo, rapio.
- The termination uus, also, denotes the quality expressed by the verb; and adjectives in uus derived from active verbs take a passive meaning; as,

congruus, agreeing, from congruo; so, assiduus, nocuus, innocuus:—irriguus, well watered; conspicuus, visible; from irrigo, conspicio.

- 4. (a.) The terminations ilis and bilis, added to the root of a verb, with its connecting vowel, denote passively, capability, or desert; as,
- amabilis, worthy to be loved; credibilis, deserving credit; placabilis, easy to be appeased; agilis, active; due tilis, duetile; from amo, crédo, placo; ago, duco. They are rarely active; as, horribilis, terribilis, fertilis; aer per cuncta meabilis. Plin.
- (b.) In adjectives of these forms, derived from verbs of the third conjugation, the connecting vowel is i; sometimes, also, in those from verbs of the second conjugation, in these and other forms, i is used instead of e; as, horst-bilis, terribilis, from horreo and terreo.
- (c.) These terminations, with the connecting vowel, are sometimes added to the third root; as, flexibis, flexibilis; coetibis, coetibilis, from flecto (flex-), etc.
- 5. The termination icius or itius, added to the third root of the verb, has a passive sense; as, fictitius, feigned; conductitius, to be hired; from fingo (fict-), etc.
- 6. The termination ax, added to the root of a verb, denotes an inclination, often one that is faulty; as,
- audax, audacions; lŏquax, talkative; rāpax rapacions; from audeo. lŏquor, rāpio.
- The termination tens, annexed to the third root of a verb, denotes fitness or ability to produce the action expressed by the verb; as, disjunctives, disjunctives, disjunctives, from disjungo.

- 8. Verbals in tor and trix, (see § 102, 8, (a.), are often used as adjectives, especially in poetry; as, victor exercitus, victrices litera. In the plural they become adjectives of three terminations; as, victores, victrices, victricia. So also hospes, especially by the later poets, is used as an adjective, having hospita in the feminine singular and also in the nenter plural.
- § 130. III. Adjectives derived from participles, and retaining their form, are called participial adjectives; as, ămans, fond of; doctus, learned.
- IV. Some adjectives are derived from adverbs; as, crastinus, of to-morrow; hodiernus, of this day; from cras and hodie.
- V. Some adjectives are derived from prepositions; as, contrarius, contrary, from contra; postërus, subsequent, from post.

### COMPOSITION OF ADJECTIVES.

- § 131. Compound adjectives are formed variously:-
- Of two nouns; as, capripes, goat-footed—of coper and pes; ignicomus, having fiery hair—of ignis and coma.

Note.—See, respecting the connecting short  $\bar{\imath}$ , in case the first part of the compound is a noun or an adjective, § 103, Rem. 1.

- 2. Of a noun and an adjective; as, noctivagus, wandering in the night—of nox and ragus. So lucifagax, shanning the light—of lux and fugax.
- 3. Of a noun and a verb; as, corniger, bearing horns—of cornu and gêre; lettfer, bringing death—of litum and fêro. So carnivorus, causidicus, ignivo-mus, lucifugus, particeps.
- Of an adjective and a noun; as, equevus, of the same age—of equus and evum; celeripes, swift-footed—of celer and pes. So centimanus, decennis, magnatimus, misoricors, unanimis.
- 5. Of two adjectives; as, centumgeminus, a hundred-fold; multicavus, having many cavitics; quintusdecimus, the lifteenth.
- Of an adjective and a verb; as, brevilóquens, speaking briefly—of brèvis and lóquor; magnificus, magnificent—of magnus and fácio.
  - Of an adjective and a termination; as, qualiscumque, quotcumque, uterque.
     Of an adverb and a noun; as, bicorpor, two-bodied—of bis and corpus.
  - 9. Of an adverb and an adjective; as, maledicax, slanderous—of male and
- dicax. So antemeridianus, before mid-day.
   Of an adverb and a verb; as, beneficeus, beneficent—of bine and făcio;
- malevolus, malevolent—of male and volo.

  11. Of a preposition and a noun; as, āmens, mad—of a and mens. So con-
- sors, decolor, deformis, implumis, inermis.

  12. Of a preposition and an adjective; as, concavus, concave; infidus, un-
- faithful. So improvidus, percarus, preudres, submidias, calicitus, in lass, unitatiful. So improvidus, percarus, preudres, submidiaus.

  13. Of a preposition and a verb; as, continuus, uninterrupted—of con and teno; risceins, ignorant—of in and scio. So precipius, promisuus, substitus;
- superstes.

  REMARK. When the former part is a preposition, its final consonant is sometimes changed, to adopt it to the consonant which follows it; as, impradens—of in and pradens. See § 196; and of , 103, R. 2.

### PRONOUNS.

- § 132. 1. A pronoun is a word which supplies the place of a noun.
  - 2. There are eighteen simple pronouns:-

Ego, I. Hic, this, the latter. Suus, his, hers, its, etc. Tu, thou. Is, that or he. Cuius? whose? Sui, of himself, etc. Quis? who? Noster, our. Ille, that, the former. Qui, who. Vester, your. Ipse, himself. Meus, my. Nostras, of our country. Iste, that, that of yours. Cujas? of what country? Tuus, thy.

- Ego, tu, and sui, and commonly also quis and its compounds, are substantives: the other pronouns, both simple and compound, are adjectives, but are often by ellipsis used as substantives.
- 4. Ego, tu, and su are commonly called personal pronouns. They are a species of appellatives (§ 26, 3,) of general application. Ego is used by a speaker to designate himself; tu, to designate the person whom he addresses. Hence ego is of the first person, tu of the second. (§ 35, 2.) Su is of the third person, and has always a reflexive signification, referring to the subject of the sentence. The oblique cases of ego and tu are also used reflexively, when the subject of the proposition is of the first or second person.
- 5. The remaining pronouns, except quis and its compounds, are adjectives, as they serve to limit the meaning of substantives; and they are pronouns, because, like substantive pronouns, they may designate any object in certain situations or circumstances.
- Meus, tuus, suus, noster, rester, and cujus, have the same extent of signification as the pronouns from which they are derived, and are equivalent to the genitive cases of their primitives.
- 7. Pronouns, like substantives and adjectives, are declined; but most of them want the vocative. Sul, from the nature of its signification, wants also the nominative in both numbers.
- 8. The substantive pronouns take the gender of the objects which they denote. The adjective pronouns, like adjectives, have three genders.

#### SUBSTANTIVE PRONOUNS.

### § 133. The substantive pronouns are thus declined:—

#### Singular. N. ĕ'-gŏ, I. tū, thou. (su'-i, of himself, her-G. me'-i, of me. tu'-i, of thee. self, itself. D. mi'-hi, to me. tib'-i,\* to thee. sib'-i,\* to himself, etc. Ac. mē, me. tē. thee. sē, himself, etc. tū, O thou. Ab. mē, with me. te, with thee. sē, with himself, etc.

<sup>\*</sup> See § 19, 1, Exc.

#### Plural.

	1 turut.	
N. nos, we.	vos, ye or you.	
$G. \begin{Bmatrix} \text{nos'-trum} \\ \text{or nos'-tri}, \end{Bmatrix} \text{ of us.}$	ves'-trum or of you.	su'-ī, of themselves.
D. no'-bis, to us.	vo'-bis, to you.	sib'-i, to themselves.
Ac. nos, us.	võs, you.	sē, themselves.
V: ———	vos, O ye or you.	- 10 0 - 1 - 1
Ab. no'-bis, with us.	vo'-bis, with you.	sē, with themselves.

REMARK 1.  $M\tilde{e}$  and  $m\tilde{i}$  are ancient forms for mihi. So min' for mihine, Pers. 1, 2.

REM. 2. The syllable met is sometimes annexed to the substantive pronouns, in an intensive sense, either with or without ipse; as, egômet, I myself; mithmet ipsi, for invself. It is not annexed, however, to the gentives plural, nor to twin the nominative or vocative. In these cases of tu, this or tuthmet is used. In the accusative and ablative the reduplicated forms mêmê and têtê in the singular, and sisê in both numbers, are employed intensively. Mepte, intensive, med and ted, for me and te, and mis and tis for mei and tui, occur in the comic writers.

Nostrum and vestrum are contracted from nostrorum, nostrorum, and vestrorum, vestrorum. Respecting the difference in the use of nostrum and nostri, vestrum and restri, see 6 212, R. 2, N. 2.

4. The preposition cum is affixed to the ablative of these pronouns in both numbers; as, mēcum, nobiscum, etc. Cf. § 136, R. 1.

### ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 134. Adjective pronouns may be divided into the following classes:—demonstrative, intensive, relative, interrogative, indefinite, possessive, and patrial.

NOTE. Some pronouns belong to two of these classes.

### DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

Demonstrative pronouns are such as specify what object is meant.

They are ille, iste, hic, and is, and their compounds, and are thus declined:—

	Singular.			Plural.	
M.	F.	$N_{ullet}$	M.	F.	N.
N. il'-lĕ,	il'-lă,	il'-lŭd,	il'-lī,	il'-læ,	il'-lă,
G. il-lī'-us,*	il-lĭ'-us,	il-lĭ'-us,	il-lö'-rum,	il-lā'-rum,	il-lō'-rum,
D. il'-lī,	il'-lī,	il'-lī,	il'-līs,	il'-līs,	il'-līs,
Ac. il'-lum,	il'-lam,	il'-lŭd,	il'-lōs,	il'-lās,	il'-lă,
V. il'-lĕ.	il'-lă,	il'-lŭd,	il'-lī,	il'-læ,	il'-lă,
Ab, il'-lō.	il'-lā.	il'-lō.	il'-līs.	il'-līs.	il'-lis.

#### Iste is declined like ille.

	Singular	r.		Plural.	
M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
N. hie,	hæc,	hŏc,	hī,	hæ,	hæc,
G. hū'-jŭs,	hū'-jŭs,	hū'-jús,	hō'-rum,	hā'-rum,	hō'-rum,
D. huic*,	huie,	huic,	his,	hīs,	hīs,
Ac. hunc,	hanc,	hắc.	hōs,	hās,	hæc.
V. hře,	hæc,	hốc,	hī,	hæ,	hæe,
Ab. hōc.	hāc.	hōc.	his.	hīs.	hīs.
	Singular.			Plural.	
M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
N. is,	e'-ă,	ĭd,	i'-ī,	e'-æ,	e'-ă,
$G$ . $\bar{\mathbf{e}}'$ - $\bar{\mathbf{j}}$ us,	ē'-jŭs,	ē'-jŭs,	e-ō'-rum,	e-ā'rum,	e-ō'-rum,
D. e'-i,	e'-ī,	e'-i,	i'-is or e'-is,	i'-is or e'-is,	i'-īs or e'-īs,
Ac. e'-um,	e -am,	ĭd,	e'-ōs,	e'-ās,	e´-ă,
V. —					
$Ab. e'-\bar{o}.$	e'-ā.	e'-ō.	i'-īs or e'-īs.	i'-īs or e'-īs.	i'-is or e'-is.

REMARK 1. Instead of ille, allus was anciently used; whence old mase. plur. In Virgil. Illæ fem., for illius and illi, is found in Lucretius and Cato, as also in Cato, we for huic fem.; hice for hi; and here for he in Plantus and Terence. Im for eum, is found in the Twelve Tables; eii for ci, and ibus and ibus for its, in Plantus; ee, fem., for ci, and edulus for its, in Cato.

REM. 2. From ecce, lo! with ille, iste, and is, are formed, in colloquial language, nom., ecca; eccilla, eccillua; acc. sing., eccum, eccam; eccillum (by syncope ellum), eccillum; eccisam; acc. pinr., eccos, ecca.

REM. 3. Istic and illic are compounded of iste hic, and ille hic; or, as some say, of iste ce, and ille ce. The former sometimes retains the aspirate, as isthic. They are more emphatic than ille and iste.

Istic is thus declined :-

	Plural.					
M.	F.	N.	1	M.	F.	N.
N. is'-tīc,	is'-tæc,	is'-tōc, or is'-tūc,	N.		is'-tæc	,
Ac. is'-tunc,	is'-tanc,	is'-tōc, or is'-tūc,	Ac.			is'-tæc.
Ab. is'-toc.	is'-tāc.	is'tōc.	i			

Illic is declined in the same manner.

REM. 4. Ce, intensive, is sometimes added to the several cases of hic, and rarely to some cases of the other demonstrative pronouns; as, hyjusce, hunce, hance, hoce, hice, have or hoc, horunc, harumce, harumce, or harunc, hose, hase, hisce; illusce, illusce, illusce, illusce; istace; ejusce, iisce. When ne, interrogative, is also annexed, ce becomes ci; as, haccine, hoscine, hiscine; istaccine, istaccine; illucine, illuncine.

REM. 5. Modi, the genitive of modus, annexed to the genitive singular of demonstrative and relative pronouns, imparts to them the signification of adjectives of quality: as, hujusmodi or hujuscmodi, of this sort, such; illiusmodi and istiusmodi, of that sort; cujusmodi, of what sort, like qualis; cu-

N. i-i'-d G. e-o-r D. e-is'-

Ac. e-os'-

juscemodi, cujusquemodi, cujusmodicumque, of what kind soever; cujusdammodi, of some kind. So also istimodi, cuimodi and cuicuimodi, instead of istiusmodi, cujusmodi, etc.

REM. 6. The suffix dem is annexed to is, forming idem, "the same," which is thus declined:-Singular. F.

M

N. I'-dem, G. e-jus'-dem, D. e-l'-dem, Ac. e-un'-dem,	e'-ā-dem, e-jus'-dem, e-ī'-dem, e-an'-dem,	I'-dem, e-jus'-dem, e-ï'-dem, I'-dem,
$Ab$ . e- $\bar{o}'$ -dem.	e-ā'-dem.	e-ô'-dem.
16	Plural.	37
M. lem.	F.	N.
iem, un'-dem, -dem, <i>or</i> i-is'-dem, -dem,	e-æ'-dem, e-a-run'-dem, e-is'-dem, or i-is'-dem, e-as'-dem,	e'-ă-dem, e-o-run'-dem, e-is'-dem, or i-is'-dem, e'-ă-dem,

N

Ab. e-is'-dem, or i-is'-dem. e-is'-dem, or i-is'-dem. e-is'dem, or i-is'-dem. Note 1. In compound pronouns, m before d is changed into n; as, eundem, corundem, etc.

Note 2. In Sallust isdem, and in Palladius hisdem occur for iisdem; and Ennius in Cicero has eademmet for eddem.

### INTENSIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 135. Intensive pronouns are such as serve to render an object emphatic.

To this class belong ipse, and the intensive compounds already mentioned. See §§ 133, R. 2, and 134, R. 4.

Ipse is compounded of is and the suffix pse, and is thus declined:

	Singular.			Plural.		
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N:
	ip′-sĕ,	ip′-să,	ip'-sum,	ip'-sī,	ip'-sæ,	ip'-să,
	ip-sī'-us,	ip-sĭ'-us,	ip-sř-us,	ip-sō'-rum,	ip-sā'-rum,	ip-sō'-rum,
	ip -si,	ip -sī,	ip -sī,	ip sīs,	ip -sîs,	ip´-sīs,
	ip sum,	ip -sam,	ip sum,		ip´-sās,	ip´-să,
		ip -să,	ip sum,		ip -sæ,	ip′-să,
Ab.	ip'-sō.	ip -sā.	ip'-sō.	ip sis.	ip´-sīs.	ip sis.

REMARK 1. Ipse is commonly subjoined to nouns or pronouns; as, Jupiter ipse, tu ipse, Jupiter himself, etc.; and hence is sometimes called the adjunctive pronoun.

Rem. 2. A nominative ipsus, occurs in early writers, and a superlative ipsissimus, his very self, is found in Plautus.

REM. 3. In old writers the is of ipse is declined, while pse remains undeclined; as, eapse, (nom. and abl.), eampse, and eopse, instead of ipsa, ipsam, and ipso. So also reapse, i. e. re eapse, "in fact."

### RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

- § 136. Relative pronouns are such as relate to a preceding noun or pronoun.
- 1. They are qui, who, and the compounds quicumque and quisquis, whoever. The latter are called general relatives.
- 2. In a general sense, the demonstrative pronouns are often relatives; but the name is commonly appropriated to those above specified. They serve to introduce a proposition, limiting or explaining a preceding noun or pronoun, to which they relate, and which is called the antecedent.

Qui is thus declined :-

Singular.			Plural.		
М.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
N. quī, G. cū'-jŭs, D. cui,* Ac. quem, V. — Ab. quō.	quæ, cuí-jŭs, cui, quam, quā.	quŏd, cū'-jŭs, cui, quŏd, quō.	quī, quō'-rum, qui'-bŭs, quōs, quōs, qui'-bŭs.	quæ, quā'-rum, qui'-hŭs, quās, ————————————————————————————————————	quæ, quō'-rum, qui'-bŭs, quæ, ————————————————————————————————————

REMARK 1. Qui is sometimes used for the ablative singular, in all genders, and rarely also for the ablative plural. To the ablatives quo, qua, qui, and quibus, cum is commonly annexed, cf. § 133, 4. Cicero uses quicum for quōcum, when an indefinite person is meant.

- REM. 2. Queis (monosyllabic, § 9, R. 1), and quis are sometimes used in the dative and ablative plural for quibus. Cujus and cui were anciently written quijus and quoi: and, instead of the genitive cūjus, a relative adjective cūjus, a, um, very rarely occurs.
  - 3. Quicumque, (or quicunque), is declined like qui.

Rem. 3. Qui is sometimes separated from cumque by the interposition of one or more words; as, que me cumque vocant terror. Virg. A similar separation sometimes occurs in the other compounds of cumque.

4. Quisquis is thus declined :-

Singular.			Plural.		
M.	F.	N.	M.		
N. quis'-quis,	quis'-quis,†	quid'-quid,	N. quī'-quī,		
Ac. quem'-quem,	guā'-guā.	quid'-quid,	D. qui-bus'-qui-bus,		

REM. 4. Quicquid is sometimes used for quidquid. Quiqui for quisquis occurs in Plautus; and quidquid is used adjectively in Cato R. R. 48.

<sup>\*</sup> See § 9, 5; and cf. § 306, (1.) † Cf. § 137, R. (1.)

#### INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 137. Interrogative pronouns are such as serve to inquire which of a number of objects is intended.

They are

Quis? Quisnam?	who? what?	Ecquis? Ecquisnam?	is any one?	Cūjus? whose? Cūjas? of what
Qui? Quinam?	which? what?	Numquis? Numquisnam,	s any one.	country?

1. Quis is commonly used substantively; qui, adjectively. The interrogative qui is declined like qui the relative.

Quis is thus declined :-

		Singular		j	Plural.	
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
G. D. Ac. V.	quĭs, cū'-jŭs, cui, quem, quō.	quæ, cū'-jŭs, cui, quam, quā.	quid, cū'-jūs, cui, quid, quō.	quī, quō'-rum, qui'-bŭs, quōs, quī'-bŭs.	quæ, quā'-rum, qui'-bŭs, quās, qui'-bŭs.	quæ, quō'-rum, qui'-bŭs, quæ, ——————————————qui'-bŭs.

REMARK (1.) Quis is sometimes used by comic writers in the feminine, and even in the neuter. Quisnam, quisque and quisquam also occur as feminine.

REM. (2.) Qui is used for the ablative of quis in all genders, as it is for that of the relative qui. Cf. § 136, R. 1.

Rem. (3.) Quis and qui have sometimes the signification of the indefinite pronoun aliquis (some one, any one), especially after the conjunctions ec (for en), si, n, neu, nisi, nun; and after relatives, as quo, quanto, etc. Sometimes quis and qui are used in the sense of quālis? what sort?

- 2. The compounds quisnam and quinam have respectively the signification and declension of the interrogatives quis and qui. In the poets nam sometimes stands before quis. Virg. G. 4, 445.
- 3. Ecquis and numquis are declined and used like quis; but are sometimes adjectives. Virg. Ecl. 10, 28: Cic. Att. 13, 8.

Rem. (4.) Ecqua is sometimes found in the nominative singular feminine; and the neuter plural of numquis is numqua.

Rem. (5.) Ecqui and numqui also occur, declined like the interrogative qui, and, like that, used adjectively.

4. Ecquisnam and numquisnam are declined like ecquis; but are found only in the singular;—the former in the nominative in all genders, and in the ablative masculine; the latter in the nominative masculine and accusative neuter. In the nominative feminine and in the ablative, the former is used adjectively.

5. The interrogative cujus is also defective:-

	Plural.		
M.	F.	N.	$F_{*}$
N. cū'-jŭs,	cū'-jă,	cū'-jum,	/ N. cū'-jæ,
$Ac$ . $car{u}$ -jum,	cū'-jam,		Ac. cū'-jās.
Ab. ———	cū'-jā.		

6.  $C\bar{u}j\bar{a}s$  is declined like an adjective of one termination;  $c\bar{u}jas$ ,  $cuj\bar{a}t\bar{s}s$ . See § 139, 4.

Note. The interrogative pronouns are used not only in direct questions but in such dependent clauses also, as contain only an indirect question; as, e.g. in the direct question,  $quis \ est$ ? who is he? in the indirect,  $nescio \ quis \ sit$ , I know not who he is.  $Qui_1$  in this sense, is found for quis; as,  $qui \ sit \ aperiti,$  he discloses who he is. CL § 255, X.

#### INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

§ 138. Indefinite pronouns are such as denote an object in a general manner, without indicating a particular individual. They are

Aliquis, some one.	Quisquam, any one.	Quīdam, a certain one.
Sīquis, if any.	Quispiam, some one.	Quilibet, any one you
Nēquis, lest any.	Unusquisque, each.	Quīvis, please.
Quisque, every one.	Aliquipiam, any, some.	Quis and qui, § 137, B. (3.)
quisque, every once	zziiquipiani, ang, comer	quio ana qui, ; zor; za (or

Note. Siquis and nequis are commonly written separately, si quis and nequis: so also unus quisque.

1. Alĭquis is thus declined :-

ziuqu	a is thus decim	cu.—	
		Singular.	
	M.	F.	N.
N. G. D. Ac. V.	al'-ĭ-quis, al-i-cū'-jus, al'-ĭ-cui, al'-ĭ-quem,	al'-ĭ-qua, al-i-cū'-jus, al'-ī-cui, al'-ĭ-quam,	al'-i-quod, or -quid, al-i-cū'-jus, al'-i-cui, al'-i-quod, or -quid,
Ab.	al'-ĭ-quo.	al'-i-quā.	al'-i-quo.
		Plural.	
	M.	F.	N.
N. G. D. Ac.	al'-ĭ-qui, al-i-quō'-rum, a-liq'-uĭ-bus,* al'-ĭ-quos,	al'-ĭ-quæ, al-i-quā'-rum, a-liq'-uĭ-bus, al'-ĭ-quas,	al'-i-qua, al-i-quō'-rum, a-liq'-uī-bus, al'-i-qua,
V. $Ab$ .	a-liq'-ui-bus.	a-liq'-ui-bus.	a-liq'-uĭ-bus.

<sup>\*</sup> Pronounced a-lik'-we-bus. See §§ 9, 4, and 21, 3.

 Siquis and nequis are declined in the same manner; but they sometimes have quæ in the fem. singular and neut. plural.

(a.) Aliquis, in the nominative singular masculine, is used both as a substantive and as an adjective—diqui, as an adjective, but is nearly obsolete. Aliquae in the fem. sing. occurs as an adjective in Lucretius, 4, 2, 64. Siqui, and nequi, which are properly adjectives, are used also substantively for siquis and nequis, and in the nominative singular masculine these two forms are equivalent. The ablatives aliqui and siqui also occur.

(b.) Aliquid, siquid, and nequid, like quid, are used substantively; aliquod,

etc., like quod, are used adjectively.

3. Quisque, quisquam, and quispiam, are declined like quis.

(a.) In the neuter singular, however, quisque has quodque, quidque, or quicque; quisquam has quidquam or quicquam; and quispiam has quodpiam, quidpiam, or quippiam. The forms quidque or quicque, quidpiam or quippiam are used substantively.

(b.) Quisquam wants the feminine (except quamquam, Plaut. Mil. 4, 2, 68), and also the plural, and, with a few exceptions in Plautus, it is always used substantively, its place as an adjective being supplied by ulus. Quispiam is scarcely used in the plural, except in the nominative feminine, quepiam.

4. Unusquisque is compounded of unus and quisque, which are

often written separately, and both words are declined.

Thus unusquisque, uniuscujusque, unicuique, unumquemque, etc. The neuter is unumquodque, or unumquidque. It has no plural. Unumquidquid for unumquidque occurs in Plautus and Lucretius.

5. Quidam, quilibet, and quivis, are declined like qui, except that they have both quod and quid in the neuter, the former used adjectively, the latter substantively.

Note. Quidam has usually n before d in the accusative singular and genitive plural; as, quendam, quorundam, etc. Cf. § 134, Note 1.

#### POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 139. 1. The possessive are derived from the genitives of the substantive pronouns, and of quis, and designate something belonging to their primitives.

They are meus, tuus, suus, noster, vester, and cūjus. Meus, tuus, and suus, are declined like bönus; but meus has in the vocative singular masculine mi, and very rarely meus. Cf. § 105, R. 3. In late writers mi occurs also in the feminine and neuter.

Cūjus also is declined like bŏnus; but is defective. See § 137,5.
 It occurs only in early Latin and in legal phraseology.

3. Noster and vester are declined like piger. See § 106.

REMARK 1. The terminations ple and met intensive are sometimes annexed to possessive pronouns, especially to the ablative singular; as, supple ponders by its own weight; suaple manu, by his own hand. So nostrapte culpā, sumple amicum; meamet culpā. The suffix met is usually followed by ipse; as, Hannibol suamet ipse fraude captus abid. Liv.; but Salust has meamet facta dicère.

REM. 2. Suus, like its primitive sui, has always a reflexive signification, referring to the subject of the sentence. Meus, tuus, noster, and vester, are also used reflexively, when the subject of the proposition is of the first or second person. See § 132, 4.

### PATRIAL PRONOUNS.

- 4. (a.) These are nostras and cūjas. See §§ 100, 2, and 128, 6. They are declined like adjectives of one termination; as, nostras, nostrātis, but both are defective.
- (b.) Nostras is found in the nominative and genitive singular, in the nominative plural, (masc. and fem., nostrates, neut. nostratia), and in the ablative, (nostratībus). Cūjas or quojas occurs in the nominative, genitive and accusative (cujūtem masc.) singular, and in the nominative plural, masc. (cujātes). Cf. § 137, 6 .- Nostrātis and cujātis (or quojātis) also occur in the nominative.

#### PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

- 5. To the adjective pronouns may be added certain adjectives of so general a meaning, that they partake, in some degree, of the character of pronouns. Of this kind are :-
- (1.) (a.) Alius, ullus, nullus, and nonnullus, which answer to the question, who?
- (b.) Alter, neuter, alteruter, utervis, and uterlibet, which answer to the question, ŭter? which of two?
- (2.) Adjectives denoting quality, size, or number, in a general way. These stand in relation to one another, and are hence called correlatives.

REMARK. The relatives and interrogatives of this class begin with qu, and are alike in form. The indefinites are formed from the relatives by prefixing ali. The demonstratives begin with t, and are sometimes strengthened by dem. A general relative, having a meaning more general than the relative, is formed by doubling the simple relative, or by affixing to it the termination cumque. A general indefinite is formed by annexing libet or vis to the relative.

(3.) Their mutual relation is denoted by the following table, with which may be compared the adverbial correlatives, § 191, R. 1.

Interrog.	Demonstr.	Relat.	Relat. general.	Indefin.	Indef general.
quālis?	tālis,	quālis,	{ qualis-qualis, qualiscumque,	}	qualislibet,
quantus?	tautus, tantundem,	quantus,	{ quantus-quantus, ' } quantuscumque,	aliquantus,	quantuslibet,
quŏt?	tŏt, totidem,	quŏt,	quot-quot, quoteumque,	alīquot,	quotlibet,
quŏtus?	tŏtus,	quŏtus,	quotuscumque,	(aliquŏtus),	<del></del> .

Diminutives. quantulus? tantulus. quantuluscumque. aliquantulum. -

Note 1. The suffix cumque, which is used in forming general relatives, is composed of the relative adverb cum (quum) and the suffix que, expressive of universality, as in quisque and in adverbs, (see § 191). Cumque, therefore, originally signified 'whenever.' When attached to a relative, whether a pronoun, adjective, or adverb, it renders the relative meaning more general; as, qui, who; quicumque, whoever; or, every one who.

Note 2. Cujusmódi is sometimes used for qualis, and hujusmódi, istiusmódi,

ejuspiódi, and ejusdemmödi for talis. Cf. § 134, R. 5.

### VERBS.

§ 140. A verb is a word by which something is affirmed of a person or thing.

 That of which any thing is affirmed is called the subject of the verb. (2.) That which is affirmed of the subject is called the predicate. Cf. § 201.

3. A verb either expresses an action or state; as, puer legit, the boy reads; aqua calct, the water is warm;—or it connects an attribute with a subject; as, terra est rotunda, the earth is round.

 All verbs belong to the former of these classes, except sum, I am, the most common use of which is, to connect an attribute with a subject. When so used, it is called the copala.

### § 141. Verbs are either active or neuter.

NOTE. Active and neuter verbs are sometimes called transitive and intransitive; and verbs of motion are by some grammarians divided into active-transitive and active-intransitive, according as they require, or do not require, an object after them.

I. An active or transitive verb expresses such an action as requires the addition of an object to complete the sense; as, amo te, I love thee; sequitur consulem, he follows the consul.

II. A neuter or intransitive verb expresses such an action or state, as does not require the addition of an object to complete the sense; as, equus currit, the horse runs; gradior, I walk.

REMARK I. Many verbs, in Latin, are considered as neuter, which are usually translated into English by active verbs. Thus indulgeo, I indulge, noceo. I hurt, pareo, 1 obey, are reckoned among neuter verbs. In strictness, such Latin verbs denote rather a state than an action, and their sense would be more exactly expressed by the verb to be with an adjective; as, 'I am indulgent, I am burtful,' etc. Some verbs in Latin, which do not usually take an object after them, are yet active, since the object is omitted by ellipsis. Thus credo properly significs to intrust, and, in this sense, takes an object; as, credo tibi salutem meann, I intrust my safety to you; but by ellipsis it usually means to believe; as, crede mith, believe me.

To verbs belong voices, moods, tenses, numbers, and persons.

### VOICES.

- (a.) Voice, in verbs, is the form by which they denote the relation of the agent to the action of the verb.
- (b.) Most active Latin verbs have, for this purpose, two forms, which are called the active and passive voices.
- 1. A verb in the active voice represents the agent as acting upon some person or thing, called the object; as, puer legit librum, the boy is reading a book.

- 2. A verb in the passive voice represents the object as acted upon by the agent; as, liber legitur a puero, a book is read by the boy.
- Rem. 2. By comparing the two preceding examples, it will be seen that they have the same meaning. The passive voice may thus be substituted at pleasure for the active, by making the object of the active the subject of the passive, and placing the subject of the active in the ablative case, with or without the preposition a or ab, according as it is a voluntary or involuntary agent. The active form is used to direct the attention especially to the agent as acting; the passive, chiefly to exhibit the object as acted upon. In the one case the object, in the other the agent, is frequently omitted, and left indefinite; as, puer legit, the boy is reading, scil. librum, libras, etc., a book, a letter, etc.; virtus laudātur, virtue is praised, scil. ab hominībus, by men.

The two voices are distinguished from each other by peculiar terminations. Cf. § 152.

- § 142. 1. Neuter verbs have, in general, only the form of the active voice. They are, however, sometimes used impersonally in the passive voice. See § 184, 2.
- 2. The neuter verbs audeo, I dare, fido, I trust. gaudeo, I rejoice, and soleo, I am wont, have the passive form in the perfect and its cognate tenses; as, ausus sum, I dared. Hence these verbs are called neuter passives, or semi-deponents.
- 3. The neuter verbs vapulo, I am beaten, and vineo, I am sold, have an active form, but a passive meaning, and are hence called neutral passives.
- 4. (a.) Deponent verbs have a transitive or intransitive signification with only the passive form. They are called deponent verbs, from depōno, to lay aside, as having laid aside their active form, and their passive signification; as, sĕquor, I follow; mŏrior, I die.
- (b.) Some deponent verbs have both an active and a passive signification, especially in the perfect participle. These are sometimes called common verbs. Cf. § 162, 17.

### MOODS.

- § 143. (a.) Moods (or modes) are forms of the verb, which denote the relation of the action or state, expressed by the verb, to the mind of the speaker or to some other action.
- (b.) Latin verbs have four moods—the indicative, the subjunctive, the imperative, and the infinitive.
- 1. The indicative mood is used in independent and absolute assertions and inquiries; as, amo, I love; audisne? dost thou hear?
- 2. The subjunctive mood is used to express an action or state simply as conceived by the mind; as, si me obsecret, redibo; if he entreat me, I will return.
- 3. The imperative mood is used in commanding, exhorting, or entreating; as, ama, love thou; amanto, they shall love.

4. The infinitive mood is used to denote an action or state indefinitely, without limiting it to any person or thing as its subject: as, virtus est vitium fugere, to shun vice is a virtue.

#### TENSES.

- § 144. Tenses are forms of the verb, denoting the time of the action or state expressed by the verb.
- 1. Time admits of a threefold division, into present, past, and future; and, in each of these times, an action may be represented either as going on, or as completed. From these two divisions arise the six tenses of a Latin verb, each of which is distinguished by its peculiar terminations.
- 2. They are called the present, imperfect, future, perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect tenses.

Present action amo, I love, or am loving; Present tense. Interior pleted; amābam, I was loving; Imperfect tense. amāba, I shall love, or be loving; Future tense.

action amari, I have loved; Perfect tense.

Future | pleted; | amavero, I shall have loved; Future perfect tense.

3. There is the same number of tenses in the passive voice, in which actions not completed are represented by simple forms of the verb, and those which are completed by compound forms.

Present action amor, I am loved; Present tense.

Past amābar, I was loved; Imperfect tense.

Future ( pleted; ) amabor, I shall be loved; Future tense.

- Present action completely amatus sum, or fig. I have been loved; Perfect tense.

  auditus erum, or furrum, I had been loved; Platerfect. pleted; amatus eru, or furrum, I had been loved; Platerfect.
- § 145. I. The present tense represents an action as now going on, and not completed; as, amo, I love, or am loving.
- 1. Any existing custom, or general truth, may be expressed by this tense; as, apud Parthos, signum datur tympano; among the Parthians, the signal is given by a drum. A general truth is sometimes also expressed by the perfect.
- 2. The present tense may also denote an action which has existed for some time, and which still exists; as, tot annos bella gero; for so many years I have waged, and am still waging war.
- 3. The present tense is often in narration used for the perfect indefinite. It is then called the historical present; as, desiliant ex equis, provolant in primum; they dismout, they fly forward to the front.
- II. The imperfect tense represents an action as going on at some past time, but not then completed; as, amabam, I was loving.
- 1. The imperfect sometimes denotes repeated or customary past action; as, legebam, I was wont to read.
- 2. It may also denote an action which had existed for some time, and which was still existing at a certain past time; as, audiebat jamdadum verba; he had long heard, and was still hearing the words.

- In letters, and with reference not to the time of their being written, but to that of their being read, the imperfect is sometimes used for the present; as, expectibum, I was expecting, (i. e. when I wrote).
- 4. The imperfect also sometimes denotes the intending, preparing, or attempting to act at a definite past time.
- III. The *future tense* denotes that an action will be going on hereafter, but without reference to its completion; as, *amābo*, I shall love, *or* shall be loving.
- IV. The perfect tense represents an action either as just completed, or as completed in some indefinite past time; as, amāvi, I have loved, or I loved.

REMARK. In the former sense, it is called the perfect definite; in the latter, the perfect indefinite, historical perfect, or agrist.

- V. The pluperfect tense represents a past action as completed, at or before the time of some other past action or event; as, litteras scripseram, quum nuncius vēnit; I had written the letter, when the messenger arrived.
- VI. The future perfect tense denotes that an action will be completed, at or before the time of some other future action or event; as, quum cœnavĕro, proficiscar; when I shall have supped, I will go.

Nore 1. This tense is often, but improperly, called the future subjunctive. It has the signification of the indicative mood, and corresponds to the second future in English.

Note 2. The imperfect, historical perfect, and pluperfect tenses are sometimes called preterites or the preterite tenses.

Note 3. The present, imperfect, and future tenses passive, in English, do not express the exact sense of those tenses in Latin, as denoting an action which is, was, or will be, going on at a certain time. Thus *lawlor* signifies, not 'I am praised,' but 'I am in the act of being praised,' or, if such an expression is admissible, 'I am being praised.'

REMARK 1. The six tenses above enumerated are found only in the indicative mood.

REM. 2. The subjunctive mood, in the regular conjugation, has the present and past, but no future tenses.

Nors 4. The tenses of the subjunctive mood have less definiteness of meaning, in regard to time, than those of the indicative. Thus the present and perfect, besides their common signs, may or can, may kace or can have, must, in certain connections, be translated by might, could, would, or should; might have, could have, etc. The tenses of this mood must often, also, be translated by the corresponding tenses of the indicative. For a more particular account of the signification of each of the tenses of the subjunctive mood, see § 200.

REM. 3. The imperative mood has two tenses—a present and a future; the former for that which is to be done at once, and the latter for that which is to be done in future.

REM. 4. The infinitive mood has three tenses—the present, the perfect, and the future; the first of which denotes an incomplete, the second a completed action, and the last an action to be performed.

### NUMBERS.

§ 146. Number, in verbs, is the form by which the unity or plurality of their subject is denoted. Hence verbs, like nouns, have two numbers—the singular and the plural. Cf. § 35, 1.

### PERSONS.

- § 147. Person, in verbs, is the form by which they denote the person of their subject. Hence in each number there are three persons—the first, second, and third. Cf. § 35, 2.
- 1. The imperative present has only the second person in both numbers. The imperative future has in each number the second and third persons, but in the singular they have both the same form, -to in the active, and -tor in the passive voice.
- 2. As the signification of the infinitive mood is not limited to any subject, it admits no change to express either number or person.
- The following are the terminations of the different persons of each number, in the indicative and subjunctive moods, in both voices:—

	Active.			Passive.		
Person.	1.	2.	3.	1.	2.	3.
	o, i, <i>or</i> m,	s,	t;	r,	ris,	tur;
Plural.	mus,	tis,	nt.	mur,	mini,	ntur.

These may be called personal terminations.

REMARK 1. The perfect indicative active is irregular in the second person singular and plural, which end in sti and stis, and in one of the forms of the third person plural, which ends in re.

REM. 2. The passive form above given belongs to the simple tenses only.

REM. 3. The pronouns of the first and second persons, ego, nos; tu and ros, are seldom expressed in Latin as subjects of a finite verb, the several persons being sufficiently distinguished by the terminations of the verb.

### PARTICIPLES, GERUNDS, AND SUPINES.

- § 148. 1. A participle is a word derived from a verb, and partaking of its meaning, but having the form of an adjective.
- (1.) Like a verb, it has different roices and tenses; like an adjective, it has declension\* and gender; and like both, it has two numbers.
- (2.) Active verbs have usually four participles—two in the active voice, a present and a future; as, amans, loving; amatūrus, about to love;—and two in the passive voice, a perfect and a future; as, amātus, loved, or having been loved; amandus, to be loved.

<sup>\*</sup> See §§ 105, R. 2: and 111, R.

- (3.) Neuter verbs have usually only the participles of the active voice.
- (4.) Deponent verbs, both active and neuter, may have the participles of both voices.
- 2. (a.) Gerunds are verbal nouns, used only in the oblique cases, and expressing the action or state of the verb; as, amandi, of loving, etc.
- (b.) Like other abstract nouns, they are found only in the singular number, and by their cases supply the place of a declinable present infinitive active.
- 3. Supines also are verbal nouns of the fourth declension in the accusative and ablative singular; as, amātum, to love; amātu, to be loved.

REMARK. These also serve in certain connections to supply the place of the infinitive present both active and passive. The supine in um is called the former supine; that in u, the latter. The former is commonly used in an active, the latter in a passive sense.

### CONJUGATION.

- § 149. 1. The conjugation of a verb is the regular formation and arrangement of its several parts, according to their voices, moods, tenses, numbers, and persons.
- 2. There are four conjugations, which are characterized by the vowel before re in the present of the infinitive active.

In the first conjugation, it is  $\bar{a}$  long; In the second, . . . .  $\bar{e}$  long; In the third, . . . .  $\bar{e}$  short. In the fourth, . . . .  $\bar{\imath}$  long.

EXCEPTION. Do, dare, to give, and such of its compounds as are of the first conjugation, have  $\check{a}$  short before re.

- § 150. A verb, like a noun, consists of two parts—the root, and the termination. Cf. § 40, R. 10.
- The first or general root of a verb consists of those letters that are found in every part. This root may always be found by removing the termination of the present infinitive.
- 2. There are also two special roots, the first of which is found in the perfect, and is called the *second* root; the other, found in the supine or perfect participle, is called the *third* root.
- 3. In regular verbs of the first, second, and fourth conjugations, the second root is formed by adding, respectively,  $\tilde{a}v$ , u, and  $\tilde{i}v$ , to the general root; and the third root by a similar addition of  $\tilde{a}t$ ,  $\tilde{t}t$ , and  $\tilde{i}t$ .

REMARK. Many verbs, in each of the conjugations, form their second and third roots irregularly.

4. In the third conjugation, the second root either is the same as the first, or is formed from it by adding s; the third root is formed by adding t. See § 171.

Note. In the second and fourth conjugations, e and i before o are considered as belonging not to the root, but to the termination. In verbs whose second or third roots are formed irregularly, the general root often undergoes some change in the parts derived from them.

- 5. The vowel which unites the general root with the remaining letters of the verb, is called the *connecting* vowel. Each conjugation, except the third, is, in a great degree, distinguished by a peculiar connecting vowel, which is the same as characterizes the infinitives. See § 149, 2.
- (a.) In the third conjugation, the connecting vowel is generally  $\ell$  or  $\ell$ . In the second and fourth conjugations, and in verbs in iv of the third, a second connecting vowel is sometimes added to that which characterizes the conjugation; as, a in doceant, u in capiunt, etc.
- (b) In verbs whose second and third roots are formed irregularly, the connecting vowel often disappears, or is changed in the parts derived from those roots; but it is almost always found in the parts derived from the first root.
- § 151. 1. From the first root are derived, in each voice, the present, imperfect, and future indicative; the present and imperfect subjunctive; the imperative, and the present infinitive. From this root are derived also the present participle, the gerund, and the future participle passive.
- 2. From the second root are derived, in the active voice, the perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect indicative; the perfect and pluperfect subjunctive, and the perfect infinitive.
- 3. (a.) From the *third* root are derived, in the active voice, the supine in *um*, and the future participle; the latter of which, with the verb esse, constitutes the future infinitive active.
- (b.) From this root are derived, in the passive voice, the supine in u, and the perfect participle; from the latter of which, with the verb sum, are formed all the tenses which in the active are derived from the second root. The future infinitive passive is formed from the supine in um, and iri, the present infinitive passive of the verb eo, to go.
- 4. The present and perfect indicative, the supine in um, and the present infinitive, are called the principal parts of the verb, because from the first three the several roots are ascertained, and from the last, the characteristic vowel of the conjugation. In the passive voice, the principal parts are the present indicative and infinitive, and the perfect participle.

NOTE. As the supine in um is wanting in most verbs, the third root must often be determined from the perfect participle, or the future participle active.

§ 152. The following table exhibits a connected view of the verbal terminations, in all the conjugations. By annexing these to the several roots, all the parts of a verb may be formed.

# Terminations added to the First Root.

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>
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E
>
H
5
9
4

INDICATIVE MOOD.

		œ	-antŭr. -entŭr. -untŭr. -iuntŭr.		-abantŭr. -ebantŭr. -ebantŭr. -iebantŭr.	-abantür. -ebuntür. -entür. -ientür.			entŭr. eantŭr. -antŭr. -iantŭr.
	PLURAL. Persons.	લં	-amini, -emini, -imini, -imini,		-abamînî, -ebamînî, -ebamînî, -iebamînî,	-abimini, -ebimini, -emini, -iennini,			-ēmīnī, -eāmīnī, -āmīnī, -iāmīnī,
		7	-āmūr, -ēmūr, -Imūr, -bnūr,		-abāmŭr, -ebāmŭr, -ebāmūr, -iebāmŭr,	-abīmŭr, -ebīmŭr, -ēmňr, -iēmŭr,			-ēmŭr, -eāmŭr, -āmŭr, -iāmŭr,
		∞•	-ātŭr; -ētūr; -Itūr; -Itūr;		-abātūr; -ebātūr; -ebātūr; -iebātūr;	-abītūr; -ebītūr; -ētūr; -iētūr;			-ētūr; -eātūr; -ātūr; -iātūr;
	SINGULAR. Persons.		or -ārĕ, or -ērē, or -trē, or -īrē,		-abāris or -abārē, -ebāris or -ebārē, -ebāris or -ebārē, -iebārīs or -iebārē,	or -aběrě, or -eběrě, or -ēré, or -iēré,	ć		or ērē, or eārē, or ārē, or iārē,
ENSE.	SINGULA!	.,	-ārfs -ērfs -črfs -brfs	cr.	-abārīs -ebārīs -ebūrīs , -iebārīs	Eaběris -eběris -ēris -iēris	E MOOD	FINSE.	-ērīs -ēīrīs -ūrīs -iārīs
PRESENT TENSE.			1. 2. 4. 4. 9. 4. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1	IMPERFECT	1abăr, 2ēbār, 8ēbār, 4iebār,	FUTURE   1ābor,   2ēbōr,   3ār,   4iār,	SUBJUNCTIVE	PRESENT TENSE.	2. eŭr, 3. eŭr, 4. išr,
		ಣೆ	-ant. -ent. -unt.		-ābant. -ēbant. -ēbant.	-abunt. -ebunt. -ent.	SUB		-ent. -eant. -ant. -iant.
	PLURAL. Persons.	63	-ātīs, -ētīs, -ītīs,		-abātīs, -ebūtīs, -ebātīs, -iebātīs,	-abitis, -ebitis, -ētis, -iētis,			eātis, eātis, iātis,
			-āmŭs, -ēmūs, -Imūs, -imūs,		-ebāmŭs, -ebāmŭs, -ebāmŭs, -iebāmŭs,	-abīmŭs, -ebīmŭs, -ēmŭs, -iēmŭs,			-emŭs, -emŭs, -amŭs, -iamŭs,
	AR.	တံ	######################################		-abăt; -ebăt; -ebăt; , -iebăt;	abit; ebit; -èt; -èt;			ėt; ėt;
	BINGULAR. Persons.	1. 2.	-0, -ñs, -00, -68, -0, -18, -10, -1s, -10, -15, -10, -15, -10, -15, -10, -10, -10, -10, -10, -10, -10, -10		-ābās, -ēbās, -ēbās, -iēbās,	-abis, -ebis, -es, -ies,			-ēs, -ēīs, -ās, -iās,
7			-ujno) .monny 	4	1ābam, 2ēbam, 3ēbam, 4iēbam,	1abo, 2abo, 3am,			1. em, 3. esm, 4ism,

L. SUP. -u.

INF. Fut. -um iri.

PART. Perf. -ds.

THIRD ROOT. INF. Fut. -ūrūs esse. PART. Fut. -ūrūs. F. SUP. -um.

3	102.					TERDS.
	-arentur.	-erentur. -irentŭr.		-antŏr. -entŏr.	-untör. -iuntör.	-andŭs, -endŭs, -endŭs, -iendŭs.
	eremini,	eremini,		(-abamini,) (-ebimini,)	(-emini,) (-iemini,)	Fut. 8enc 4ien
	arēmūr, erēmūr,	eremur, irēmūr,		٠.	-Itòr, -Itòr,	PA
	eretur;	1 1			Futi -Itôr,	. { 2ērī, 8ī, 4īrī.
	-arērě, -erērě,	· -erere, · -irērě,		-amînî. -emînî.	-imíní. -imíní.	INFIN. Pres.
÷	-arēris or -erēris or	ereris or	MOOD.	1ērē, 2ērē,	8ěrě, 4īrě,	-
MPERFECT	1ārēr, 2ērēr,	8erer, 4ìrèr,	APERATIVE	·3n98	$p_{TG}$	1andī, 2endī, 3endī, 4iendī.
	-ērent.	-erent.	IMPE	anto.	-unto. -iunto.	GER. 2.
	-arētis, -erētis,	erētis, -irētis,		-atōtě, -etūtě,	itôtě, itôtě,	1ans, 2ens, 3ens, 4iens.
	arēmūs, erēmūs,	-erēmūs, -irēmūs,			o, -ito; o, -ito;	$\begin{array}{c} \text{PART.} \\ Pres. \\ \end{array} \left\{ \begin{array}{c} 1. \\ 2. \\ 3. \\ 4. \end{array} \right.$
	-ārět,	-èret; -iret;		_	Fute -tto,	arė, ėrė, irė.
	-ārēs, -ērēs,	-ĕrēs, -Irēs,			-1tč.	INFIN. $\begin{cases} 1.\\ 2. \end{cases}$
	ērem,	èrem,			en•¶   ∞ 4   ½ 14	E.
	w 64	m 4				

Norz. Verbs in is of the third conjugation have two connecting vowels in all the parts in which they occur in verbs of the fourth conjugation, and these vowels are the same in both.

# Terminations added to the Second and Third Roots.

The terminations of the tenses which are formed from the second and third roots, are the same in all the conjugations. Thus:— PASSIVE VOICE .-THIRD ROOF. ACTIVE VOICE .- SECOND ROOT.

		etc.	ic.		ţç.	şţe.	
		or fuisti,	or fuerts,		-ds sis or fuëris, etc.	or fuissēs,	
		-ŭs ĕs	-ŭs ērīs		-ŭs sís	-ŭs essēs	or fuisse.
	Singular.	or fui,	or fuero,		-ds sim or fuërim,	or fuissem,	INFIN. Perfus esse or fuisse.
		-ŭs sum	-us eram		-ds sim	-ds essem	INFIN. P
MOOD.		Perfùs sum	Fut. perf.	MOOD.	Perf.		
INDICATIVE 1		-ērunt or -ērě.	-erant.	SUBJUNCTIVE	-érint.	-issent.	
	Plural.	-istIs,	-eraus,			-issētīs,	36.
		-Imŭs,	-eramus,		-ěrimňs,	-issēmūs,	INFIN. Perfisse.
		-11;	-erat;		-ěrit:		INFIN
	angular	-isti, -It;	-eras,		-ĕrīs.	-issēs,	
1	Q	μţ,	-eram,		-Arim.	-issem,	
		Perf.	Fluperam,	Cod m	Perf.	Plup.	
		-	-	-	-		

REMARK 1. In analyzing a verb, the voice, person, and number, are ascertained by the personal terminations. See § 147, 3. The conjugation, mood, and tense, are, in general, determined by the letter or letters which intervene between the root of the verb and the personal terminations. Thus in anabamus, mus denotes that the verb is of the active voice, plural number, and first person; ba denotes that it is of the indicative mood, imperfect tense; and the connecting vowel a determines it to be of the first conjugation. So in amarentai, min denotes the passive voice, plural number, and second person; re, the subjunctive mood, imperfect tense; and a, as before, the first conjugation.

REM. 2. Sometimes, the part between the root of the verb and the personal termination, does not precisely determine the conjugation, mood, and tense, but only within certain limits. In such cases, the conjugation may be learned, by finding the present tense in the dictionary, and if two forms are alike in the same conjugation, they can only be distinguished by the sense. Thus amēmus and docēmus have the same termination; but, as amo is of the first, and doce of the second conjugation, the former is determined to be the subjunctive, the latter the indicative, present. Regar may be either the future indicative, or the present subjunctive—blothmus either the present or the perfect indicative.

§ 153. Sum, I am, is called an auxiliary verb, because it is used, in conjunction with participles, to supply the want of simple forms in other verbs. From its denoting existence, it is sometimes called the substantive verb.

REMARK. Sum is very irregular in those parts which, in other verbs, are formed from the first root. Its imperfect and future tenses, except in the third person plural of the latter, have the form of a pluperfect and future perfect. It is thus conjugated:—

# PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Indic. Fut. Part.
Sum, es'-së, fu'-ī, fū'-tū'-rŭs.

#### INDICATIVE MOOD.

#### Present Tense.

#### PLURAL.

e'-runt, they will be.

SINGULAR.

3. e'-rit, he will be :

#### Imperfect.

ě'-ram, I was,
 ě'-rās, thou wast,
 ë'-rā-tīs, ye were,

3. ě'-rat, he was; ě'-rant, they were.

#### Future. shall, or will.

ě'-rŏ, I shall be,
 ě'-ris, thou wilt be,
 ër'-ĭ-tis, ye will be.

• In the second person singular in English, the plural form you is commonly used

except in solemn discourse; as. tu es, you are.

† The plural pronoun of the second person is either ye or you.

# Perfect. have been, or was.

- 1. fu'-ī, I have been,
- 2. fu-is'-ti, thou hast been,
- 3. fu'-it, he has been;
- fu'-i-mus, we have been,
- fu-is'-tis, ye have been, fu-ē'-runt or rĕ, they have been.

# Pluperfect.

- 1. fu'-ĕ-ram, I had been,
- fu'-ĕ-rās, thou hadst been,
   fu'-ĕ-răt, he had been;
- fu-e-rā'-mŭs, we had been, fu-e-rā'-tīs, ye had been,
- fu'-ĕ-rant, they had been.

# Future Perfect. shall or will have.

- 1. fu'-ĕ-rŏ, I shall have been, .
- fu'-ĕ-rĭs, thou wilt have been,
   fu'-ĕ-rĭt, he will have been;
- fu-er'-ĭ-mus, we shall have been,
- fu-er'-ĭ-tĭs, ye will have been, fu'-ĕ-rint, they will have been.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

# Present. may, or can.

- sim, I may be,
   sis, thou mayst be,
- 3. sit, he may be;

sī'-mŭs, we may be, sī'-tĭs, ye may be, sint, they may be.

# Imperfect. might, could, would, or should.

- 1. es'-sem, I would be,
- es'-sēs, thou wouldst be,
   es'-sēt, he would be;
- es-sē'-mŭs, we would be, es-sē'-tĭs, ye would be,
- es'-sent, they would be.

# Perfect.

- fu'-ĕ-rim, I may have been,
   fu'-ĕ-rĭs, thou mayst have been,
- fu-ĕr'-Ĭ-mus, we may have been, fu-ĕr'-Ĭ-tĭs, ye may have been,
- 3. fu'-ĕ-rit, he may have been;
- fu'-ĕ-rĭnt, they may have been.

# Pluperfect. might, could, would, or should have.

- 1. fu-is'-sem, I would have been, fu-is-sē'-mus, we would have been,
- 2. fu-is'-ses, thou wouldst have been, fu-is-se'-tis, ye would have been,
- 3. fu-is'-set, he would have been; fu-is'-sent, they would have been.

# IMPERATIVE MOOD.

- Pres. 1. ĕs, be thou, Fut. 2. es'-tŏ, thou shalt be.
  - es'-tŏ, thou shalt be,
     es'-tŏ, let him be;
- es'-tĕ, be ye. es-tō'-tĕ, ye shall be, sun'-tŏ, let them be.

# INFINITIVE MOOD.

- Present. es'-sĕ, to be.
- Perfect. fu-is'-se, to have been.
- Future. fu-tu-rus (a, um), es'-se, or fo'-re, to be about to be.

#### PARTICIPLE.

#### Future. fu-tu'-rus, a, um, about to be:

§ 154. REMARK 1. A present participle ens seems to have been anciently in use, and is still found in the compounds absens, præsens, and pôtens.

REM. 2. The perfect fui, and its derivative tenses, are formed from an obsolete fuo, whence come also the participle futurus, an old subjunctive present fuam, fuas, fuat; —, fuant, and the forms furimus, perf. ind., furint, perf. subj., and fuvisset, plup. subj.

REM. 3. From fuo appear also to be derived the following:-

Subj. imperf. fő'-rem, fő'-rēs, fő'-rēt; ———, fő'-rent. Inf. pres. fő'-re.

These forms seem to have been contracted from fuerem, etc., and fuere. Forem is equivalent in meaning to essem, but the infinitive fore has, in most cases, acquired a future signification, equivalent to futures esse.

REM 4. Siem, sies, siet, sient, for sim, sis, sit, sint, are found in ancient writers, as are also escit for erit, escunt for crunt, ese, escitis, and esent, for esse, escitis, and essent.

REM. 5. Like sum are conjugated its compounds, absum, adsum, dēsum, insum, intersum, obsum, præsum, subsum, and supersum.

REM. 6. PROSUM, from the old form  $pr\bar{v}d$  for  $pr\bar{v}$ , and sum, has d after pro, when the simple verb begins with e; as,

Ind. pres. prod'-est, prod'-est, etc. imperf. prod'-e-ram, prod'-e-ras, etc.

REM. 7. (a.) Possum is compounded of  $p\check{o}tis$ , able, and sum. They are sometimes written separately, and then  $p\check{o}tis$  is the same in all genders and numbers.

(b.) In composition, is is omitted in polis, and t, as in other cases, coming before s, is changed into s. In the infinitive, and imperfect subjunctive, so of the simple view is dropped, as is also f at the beginning of the second root. In every other respect possum is conjugated like sum, wherever it is found; but the imperative, and the parts derived from the third root, are wanting.

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Indic. Pos'-sum, pos'-se, pot'-u-i,

I can, or I am able.

INDICATIVE.

Present. SUBJUNCTIVE.

pos'-sum, pŏ'-tĕs, pŏ'-test; pos'-sŭ-mŭs, pŏ-tes'-tĭs, pos'-sunt. pos'-sim, pos'-sīs, pos'-sīt; pos-sī'-mus, pos-sī'-tīs, pos'-sint.

Imperfect.

pŏt'-ĕ-ram, pot'-ĕ-rās, pot'-ĕ-rāt; pŏt-ĕ-rā'-mūs, -ĕ-rā'-tīs, -ĕ-rant. pos'-sem, pos'-sēs, pos'-sēt; pos-sē'-mus, -sē'-tīs, pos'-sent.

Future.

pŏt'-ĕ-rŏ, pŏt'-ĕ-rĭs, pŏt'-ĕ-rīt; pŏ-tĕr'-I-mūs, po-tĕr'-I-tIs, pot'-ĕ-runt.

Perfect.

pŏt'-u-I, pŏt-u-is'ti, pŏt'-u-it; pŏ-tu'-i-mūs, -is'-tis, -ē'-runt or -ē'rĕ. pŏt-u-ēr'-i-mūs, -i-tīs, -ē-rint.

#### Pluperfect.

po-tu'-e-ram, -e-ras, -e-rat; pòt-u-is'-sem, -is'-sēs, -is'-sēt; pot-u-is-se'-mus, -is-se'-tis, -is'-sent. pot-u-e-ra'-mus, -e-ra'-tis, -e-rant.

#### Future Perfect.

pŏ-tu'-ĕ-rŏ, pŏ-tu'-ĕ-rĭs, pŏ-tu'-ĕ-rīt; pŏt-u-ēr'-Ṭ-mus, pŏt-u-ēr'-Ṭ-tis, pŏ-tu'-ĕ-rint.

(No Imperative.)

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPIAL ADJECTIVE.

Pres. pos'-se. Perf. pot-u-is'-se.

po'-tens, able.

Note. The following forms are also found; potissum for possum, potessunt for possunt, potessim and possiem for possim, possies, possiet and potessit for possis and possit, potessen for possen, potesses for posse, and before a passive infinitive the passive forms potestur for potest, poteratur for poterat, and posset potestur for posset.—Poths and pote without est are sometimes used for potest.

# § 155. FIRST CONJUGATION.

#### ACTIVE VOICE.

#### PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. Pres. Inf. Perf. Ind. Supine. A'-mŏ. ă-mā'-rĕ, ă-mā'-vi. ă-mā'-tum.

#### INDICATIVE MOOD.

# Present. love, do love, am loving.

Sing. ă'-mŏ, I love, thou lovest. ă'-mās. ă'-măt, he loves: Plur. ă-mā'-mus, we love. ă-mā'-tĭs. ue love. ă'-mant. they love.

#### Imperfect. was loving, loved, did love.

Sing. ă-mā'-bam, I was loving, thou wast loving, ă-mā'-bās. he was loving; ă-mā'-băt, Plur. ăm-ā-bā'-mŭs, we were loving, ye were loving, ăm-ā-bā'-tīs,

Future. shall, or will.

they were loving.

Sing. ă-mā'-bŏ, I shall love, ă-mā'-bis, thou wilt love. ·he will love; ă-mā'-bit, we shall love, Plur. ă-māb'-i-mus. ye will love. ă-māb'-I-tis, ă-mā'-bunt, they will love.

ă-mā'-bant.

#### Perfect. loved, or have loved.

#### Pluperfect. had.

Sing. ă-māv'-ĕ-ram,
 ă-māv'-ĕ-rās,
 ă-māv'-ĕ-rās,
 i-māv-ĕ-rā'-mus,
 ă-māv-ĕ-rā'-tīs,
 ā-māv-ĕ-ra'-tīs,
 ā-māv'-ĕ-rant,
 i-māv -ĕ-rant,

# Future Perfect. shall, or will have.

Sing. ă-māv'-ĕ-rō,
 ă-māv'-ĕ-rīs,
 ă-māv'-ō-rīs,
 thou wilt have loved,
 thou wilt have loved,
 the will have

#### SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD,

# Present. may, or can.

Sing. X'-mem, I may love,
X'-mës, thou mayst love,
X'-mët, he may love;
Plur. X-më'-tis, we may love,
X'-ment, they may love.

# Imperfect. might, could, would, or should.

Sing. ¾-mä'-rem,

ä-mä'-rēs,

hou wouldst love,

thou wouldst love,

he would love;

he would love;

we would love,

mm-ä-rē'-tis,

ma'-rent,

they would love.

# Perfect. may, or can have.

Sing. š-māv'-ē-rīm,

š-māv'-ē-rīs,

š-māv'-ē-rīt,

Plur. šm-ā-vēr'-Ī-mūs,

mm-ā-vēr'-Ī-tīs,

mm-ā-vēr'-Ī-tīs,

mm-āv-vēr'-ī-tīs,

they may have loved,

mmav'-ē-rīnt,

they may have loved.

Pluperfect. might, could, would, or should have.

Sing. ăm-ā-vis'-sem, ăm-ā-vis'-sēs, ăm-ā-vis'-sēt, Plur. ăm-ā-vis-sē'-mŭs, ăm-ā-vis-sē'-tis,

ăm-ā-vis'-sent.

I would have loved, thou wouldst have loved, he would have loved; we would have loved, ye would have loved, they would have loved.

they shall love.

#### IMPERATIVE MOOD.

. Pres. Sing. ă'-mā, love thou; Plur. ă-mā'-tĕ, . love ye. thou shalt love, Fut. Sing. ă-mā'-tŏ, he shall love; ă-mā'-tŏ, ye shall love. Plur. ăm-ā-tō'-tě, ă-man'-tŏ.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. ă-mā'-rě, to love. Perfect. ăm-ā-vis'-sĕ, to have loved. Future. ăm-ā-tū'-rus, (ă, um,) es'-sĕ, to be about to love.

#### PARTICIPLES.

Present. ă'-mans, loving. Future. am-ā-tū'-rus, a, um, about to love.

#### GERUND.

G. ă-man'-dī. of loving, D. ă-man'-dŏ, for loving. Ac. ă-man'-dum. loving, Ab. ă-man'-dŏ, by loving.

#### SUPINE.

Former. ă-mā'-tum, to love.

#### § 156. PASSIVE VOICE.

# PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Part. A'-mor, ă-mā'-tūs. ă-mā'-rī.

#### INDICATIVE MOOD.

#### Present. am.

# Imperfect. was.

 Sing.
 ă-mā'-băr,
 I was loved,

 ăm-ā-bā'-rīs or -rē,
 thou wast loved,

 ăm-ā-bā'-tūr,
 he was loved;

 Plur.
 ăm-ā-bā-mūr,
 we were loved,

 ăm-ā-bām'-ī-nī,
 ye were loved.

 ām-ā-ban'-tūr,
 they were loved.

#### Future. shall, or will be.

Sing. ă-mă'-bŏr,
ă-māb'-i-tūr,
Plur. ă-māb'-i-tūr,
mā-ā-bim'-i-nī,
ă-māb'-i-tūr,
pe will be loved;
pe shall be loved;
pe will be loved,
the will be loved;
pe will be loved,
the will be loved.

# Perfect. have been, or was.

# Pluperfect. had been.

Sing. & mā'-tūs ĕ'-ram or fu'-ĕ-ram,

k-mā'-tūs ĕ'-rās or fu'-Ē-rās,

k-mā'-tūs ĕ'-rās or fu'-Ē-rās,

k-mā'-tū ĕ-rā'-mūs or fu-Ē-rā'-mūs,

k-mā'-tī ĕ-rā'-tīs or fu-Ē-rā'-tīs,

k-mā'-tī ĕ-rā'-tīs or fu'-Ē-rā-tīs,

k-mā'-tī ĕ-ran or fu'-Ē-rant,

k-mā'-tī ĕ-ran or fu'-Ē-rant,

k-mā'-tī ĕ-ran or fu'-Ē-rant,

# Future Perfect. shall have been.

Sing. ă-mā'-tūs ĕ'-rō or fu'-ĕ-rō,
ă-mā'-tūs ĕ'-rīt or fu'-ĕ-rīt,
Plur. ă-mā'-tī ĕ'-ri-mūs or fu-ĕ'-Ĭ-mūs,
ă-mā'-tī ĕ'-l-tīs or fu-ĕ'-Ĭ-rīt,
ă-mā'-tī ĕ'-runt or fu'-ĕ-rīt,
thou will have been loved;
we shall have been loved;
ye will have been loved,
they will have been loved,
they will have been loved.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

#### Present. may, or can be.

Sing. a'-mer. ă-mē'-ris or -re. ă-mē'-tŭr, Plur. ă-mē'-mur, ă-mēm'-i-nī,

ă-men'-tur.

I may be loved. thou mayst be loved, he may be loved; we may be loved, ye may be loved, they may be loved.

# Imperfect. might, could, would, or should be.

Sing. ă-mā'-rĕr, ăm-ā-rē'-ris or -re. ăm-ā-rē'-tŭr, Plur. ăm-ā-rē'-mur.

I would be loved, thou wouldst be loved. he would be loved: we would be loved, ye would be loved, they would be loved.

ăm-ā-rēm'-i-nī, ăm-ā-ren'-tur,

Perfect. may have been.

Sir q a-ma'-tus sim or fu'-e-rim. ă-mā'-tus sis or fu'-č-rīs. ă-mā'-tus sit or fu'-ĕ-rit, Plur. ă-mā'-tī sī'-mŭs or fu-er'-f-mŭs, ă-mā'-tī sī'-tīs or fu-er'-t-tīs, ă-mā'-tī sint or fu'-ĕ-rint,

I may have been loved, thou mayst have been loved. he may have been loved; we may have been loved, ye may have been loved, they may have been loved.

# Pluperfect. might, could, would, or should have been.

Sing. ă-mā'-tus es'-sem or fu-is'-sem, ă-mā'-tūs es'-sēs or fu-is'-sēs, ă-mā'-tus es'-set or fu-is'-set,

ă-mā'-tī es-sē'-tĭs or fu-is-sē'-tĭs,

ă-mā'-tī es'-sent or fu-is'-sent,

I would have been loved. thou wouldst have been loved. he would have been loved; Plur. ă-mā'-ti es-sē'-mus or fu-is-sē'-mus, we would have been loved, ye would have been loved, they would have been loved.

# IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. Sing. a-ma'-re, Plur. ă-mām'-ĭ-nī, Fut. Sing. a-ma'-tor, ă-mā'-tŏr, Plur. (ăm-ā-bim-i-nī,

be thou loved; be ye loved. thou shalt be loved. he shall be loved; ye shall be loved), they shall be loved.

# INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. ă-mā'-rī, Perfect. ă-mā'-tus es'-se or fu-is'-se, to have been loved. Future. ă-mă'-tum i'-ri,

ă-man'-tŏr,

to be loved. to be about to be loved.

#### PARTICIPLES.

Perfect. ă-mā'-tňs, Future. ă-man'-dus.

loved, or having been loved. to be loved.

#### SUPINE.

Latter. ă-mā'-tū, to be loved.

#### FORMATION OF THE TENSES.

From the first root, am, are derived Active. Passive. Ind. pres.
— imperf. amo, amor. amābam, amābar. \_\_ fut. Subj. pres. amābo, amābor. amem, amer. - imperf. amarem, amarer. Imperat. pres. amā, amāre. - fut. amato, amator. Inf. pres. amare, amāri. Part. pres. amans,

amandi.

- fut.

Gerund.

From the second root, From the third root, amar, are derived amat, are derived Passive. Active. Ind. perf. amāvi, amātus sum, etc. - plup. amaveram, amātus eram, etc. fut. perf. amavero, amatus ero, etc. Subj. perf. amavérim, amātus sim, etc. amavissem, amātus essem, etc. - plup. Inf. perf. amavisse, amātus esse, etc. From the third root, Inf. fut. amatūrus e Part. fut. amatūrus. amatūrus esse, amātum iri.

perf. amātus. Form. sup. amātum. Lat. sup. amātu.

# § 157. SECOND CONJUGATION.

#### ACTIVE VOICE.

amandus.

PASSIVE VOICE.

#### PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. mŏ'-ne-ŏ.-Pres. Inf. mŏ-nē'-rě. Perf. Ind. mŏn'-u-i. Supine. mŏn'-i-tum. Pres. Ind. mo'-ne-or. Pres. Inf. mŏ-nē'-rī. Perf. Part. mon'-i-tus.

I am advised.

mŏ-nē'-tŭr;

mŏ-nēm'-ĭ-nī.

mŏ-nen'-tŭr.

Sing. mo'-ne-or, mo-ne'-ris or -re.

Plur. mö-nē'-mur,

#### INDICATIVE MOOD.

#### Present.

I advise.

Sing. mo'-ne-o, mŏ'-nēs,

mo'-net; Plur. mŏ-nē'-mŭs, mŏ-nē'-tĭs.

mo'-nent.

Imperfect.

I was advising.

S. mŏ-nē'-bam. mŏ-nē'-bās. mŏ-nē'-băt:

P. mon-ē-bā'-mus, mon-ē-bā'-tis, mŏ-nē'-bant.

I was advised.

S. mŏ-nē'-băr. mon-ē-bā'-ris or -re.

mŏn-ē-bā'-tŭr; P. mon-ē-bā'-mur.

mon-ē-bām'-i-nī, mon-c-ban -tur.

# I shall or will advise.

S. mŏ-nē'-bō, mŏ-nē'-bīs, mŏ-nē'-bīt;

P. mö-nēb'-i-mus, mö-nēb'-i-tis, mö-nē'-bunt.

#### PASSIVE.

#### Future.

I shall or will be advised.

S. mŏ-nē'-bŏr, mŏ-nēb'-ĕ-rĭs or -rĕ, mŏ-nēb'-ĭ-tŭr;

P. mŏ-nēb'-i-mūr, mŏn-ē-bīm'-i-nī, mŏn-ē-bun'-tŭr.

# Perfect.

# I advised or have advised.

S. niŏn'-u-i, mŏn-u-is'-ti, niŏn'-u-it;

P. mŏ-nu'-i-mus, mŏn-u-is'-tis, mŏn-u-ē'-runt or -rĕ,

# I was or have been advised.

S. mŏn'-ĭ-tŭs sum or fu'-ī, mŏn'-ĭ-tŭs ĕs or fu-is'-tī, mŏn'-ĭ-tŭs est or fu'-īt;

P. mon'-i-tī su'-mus or fu'-i-mus, mon'-i-tī es'-tīs or fu-is'-tīs, mon'-i-tī sunt, fu-ē'-runt or -rē-

# Pluperfect.

# I had advised.

S. mŏ-nu'-ĕ-ram, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rās, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-răt:

P. mon-u-e-ra'-mus, mon-u-e-ra'-tis, mo-nu'-e-rant.

# I had been advised.

S. mŏn'-ĭ-tūs ĕ'-ram or fu'-ĕ-ram, mŏn'-ĭ-tūs ĕ'-rās or fu'-ĕ-rās, mŏn'-ĭ-tūs ĕ'-rāt or fu'-ĕ-rāt;

P. mon'i-ti ĕ-rā'-mus or fu-e-rā'-mus, mon'-i-ti ĕ-rā'-tis or fu-e-rā'-tis, mon'-i-ti ĕ'-rant or fu'-ĕ-rant.

# Future Perfect.

# I shall have advised.

S. mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rŏ, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rīs, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rīt:

P. mon-u-er'-i-mus, mon-u-er'-i-tis, mo-nu'-e-rint.

# I shall have been advised.

S. mŏn'-ĭ-tŭs ĕ'-rŏ or fu'-ĕ-rŏ, mŏn'-I-tŭs ĕ'-rĭs or fu'-ĕ-rĭs, mŏn'-ĭ-tŭs ĕ'-rīt or fu'-ĕ-rīt:

P. mon'-i-ti er'-i-mus or fu-er'-i-mus, mon'-i-ti er'-i-tis or fu-er'-i-tis, mon'-i-ti e'-runt or fu'-e-rint.

# SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

#### Present.

# I may or can advise.

S. mo'-ne-am, mo'-ne-ās,

mŏ'-ne-āt; P. mŏ-ne-ā'-mŭs, mŏ-ne-ā'-tīs, mŏ'-ne-ant.

# I may or can be advised.

S. mŏ'-ne-ăr, mŏ-ne-ā'-ris or -rĕ, mŭ-ne-ā'-tŭr;

P. mö-ne-ā'-mūr, mŏ-ne-ām'-ĭ-nī, mŏ-ne-an'-tūr.

#### PASSIVE.

# Imperfect.

I might, could, would, or should advise.

> S. mŏ-nē'-rem. mŏ-nē'-rēs. mŏ-nē'-rět:

P. mon-ē-rē'-mus. mŏn-ē-rē'-tis, mŏ-nē'-rent.

I might, could, would, or should

be advised. S. mo-ne'-rer. mŏn-ē-rē'-ris or -rĕ.

mŏn-ē-rē'-tŭr; P. mon-ē-rē'-mur, mŏn-ē-rēm'-i-ni, mon-ē-ren'-túr.

# Perfect.

I may have advised.

S. mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rim, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rīs, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rĭt;

P. mon-u-er'-i-mus, mŏn-u-ĕr'-Ĭ-tĭs. mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rint.

I may have been advised.

S. mon'-i-tus sim or fu'-e-rim, mŏn'-ĭ-tŭs sīs or fu'-ĕ-rīs. mon'-i-tus sit or fu'-e-rit;

P. mon'-i-tī sī'-mus or fu-er'-f-mus, mon'-i-ti si'-tis or fu-er'-i-tis, mon'-i-ti sint or fu'-e-rint.

# Pluperfect.

I might, could, would, or should have been advised.

S. mon'-i-tus es'-sem or fu-is'-sem, mon'-i-tus es'-ses or fu-is'-ses, mon'-i-tus es'-set or fu-is'-set:

P. mon'-ĭ-tī es-sē'-mus or fu-is-sē'-mus. mon'-i-ti es-se'-tis or fu-is-se'-tis. mon'-i-ti es'-sent or fu-is'-sent.

I might, could, would, or should have advised.

S. mon-u-is'-sem. mŏn-u-is'-sēs, mon-u-is'-set;

P. mon-u-is-se'-mus, mŏn-u-is-sē'-tis, mon-u-is'-sent.

# IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. S. mo'-ne, advise thou;

P. mŏ-nē'-tĕ, advise ye. Fut. S. mo-ne'-to, thou shalt ad-

mŏ-nē'-tŏ, he shall advise; P. mon-ē-to'-te, ye shall advise,

mo-nen'-to, they shall adnise.

Pres. S. mo-ne'-re, be thou advised; P. mo-nēm'-i-nī, be ye advised.

Fut. S. mo-ne'-tor, thou shalt be advised. mo-ne'-tor, he shall be

advised ; P. (mon-ē-bim'-i-nī, ye shall be advised,) mo-nen'-tor, they shall be

#### INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. mo-ne'-re, to advise. Fut. mon-i-tu'-rus es'-se, to be about to advise.

Pres. mo-ne'-ri, to be advised. Perf. mon-u-is'-se, to have advised. Perf. mon'-1-tus es'-se or fu-is'-se, to have been advised.

advised.

Fut. mon'-i-tum i'-ri, to be about to be advised.

#### PASSIVE.

#### PARTICIPLES.

Pres. mo'-nens, advising. Perf. mon'-I-tus, advised. Fut. mon-I-tu'-rus, about to advise. Fut. mo-nen'-dus, to be advised.

#### GERUND.

G. mŏ-nen'-dī, of advising,

D. mŏ-nen'-dŏ, etc. Ac. mŏ-nen'-dum.

Ab. mŏ-nen'-dŏ.

#### SUPINES.

Former. mon'-i-tum, to advise. | Latter. mon'-i-tu, to be advised.

#### FORMATION OF THE TENSES.

From the first root, mon, are de- | From the second root, From the third root, rived, monu, are derived, monit, are derived, Passive. Active. Passive. Active. moneo, Ind. pres. moneor. Ind. perf. monui, monitus sum, etc. - plup. monueram, monitus eram, etc. fut. perf. monuero, monitus ero, etc. monuéram, monitus eram, etc. - imperf. monebam, monebar. \_\_\_\_\_fut. monebo, monebor.
Subj. pres. moneam, monear.
\_\_\_\_\_imperf. monerem, monerer. Subj. perf. monuerim, monitus sim, etc. - plup. monuissem, monitus essem, etc. Inf. perf. Imperat. pres. mone, monēre. monuisse, monitus esse, etc. - fut. monēto, monētor. From the third root, Inf. pres. monere, monéri. Inf. fut. Part. fut. moniturus esse. monItum iri. Part. pres. monens, monitūrus. — fut. monendus. perf. monitus. Gerund. monendi. Form. Sup. monitum. Lat. Sup. monitu.

#### § 158. THIRD CONJUGATION.

#### PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. re'-go. Pres. Ind. rĕ'-gŏr. Pres. Inf. reg'-e-re. Pres. Inf. rě'-gī. Perf. Part. rec'-tus. Perf. Ind. rex'-i. Supine. rec'-tum.

# INDICATIVE MOOD.

#### Present.

I rule. I am ruled. Sing. re'-gor, Sing. rě'-gť, rĕ'-gĭs, rěg'-ĕ-ris or -rě, re'-git: reg'-i-tur: Plur. reg'-i-mus, Plur. reg'-i-mur, rĕg'-i-tis, re-gim'-i-ni, re'-gunt. re-gun'-tur.

# I was ruling.

S. rě-gē'-bam, rĕ-gē'-bās, rĕ-gē'-băt;

P. reg-c-ba'-mus, rĕg-ē-bā'-tis, rĕ-gē'-bant.

#### PASSIVE. Imperfect.

I was ruled. S. rě-gē'-băr,

rĕg-ē-bā'-rĭs or -rĕ.

rĕg-ē-bā'-tŭr : P. rěg-ē-bā'-mŭr, rčg-ē-bām'-i-nī, reg-e-ban'-tur.

# Future.

# I shall or will rule.

S. rě'-gam, rĕ'-gēs, rĕ'-gĕt;

P. re-ge'-mus, rĕ-gē'-tĭs, re'-gent.

I shall or will be ruled.

S. rě'-găr, rĕ-gē'-rĭs or -rĕ, rĕ-gē'-tŭr ;

P. rĕ-gē'-mur, rě-gēm'-I-nī, rĕ-gen'-tŭr.

#### Perfect.

# I ruled or have ruled.

S. rex'-i, rex-is'-ti,

rex'-it; P. rex'-i-mus. rex-is'-tis. rex-ē'-runt or -rě. I was or have been ruled.

S. rec'-tus sum or fu'-i, rec'-tus es or fu-is'-ti, rec'-tus est or fu'-it;

P. rec'-ti sŭ'-mŭs or fu'-i-mŭs, rec'-tī es'-tīs or fu-is'-tīs, rec'-tī sunt, fu-ē'-runt or -rě.

# Pluperfect.

# I had ruled.

S. rex'-č-ram, rex'-ĕ-rās. rex'-ĕ-răt;

P. rex-č-rā'-mus, rex-e-ra'-tis, rex'-ĕ-rant.

# I had been ruled.

S. rec'-tus e'-ram or fu'-e-ram, rec'-tus ĕ'-ras or fu'-ĕ-ras, rec'-tus e'-rat or fu'-e-rat:

P. rec'-tī ĕ-rā'-mus or fu-ĕ-rā'-mus, rec'-ti ĕ-rā'-tis or fu-ĕ-rā'-tis, rec'-ti e'-rant or fu'-e-rant.

# Future Perfect.

# I shall have ruled.

S. rex'-ĕ-rŏ, rex'-ĕ-rīs, rex'-ĕ-rīt;

P. rex-er'-f-mus, rex-er'-t-tis, rex'-ē-rint.

#### I shall have been ruled.

S. rec'-tus ě'-ro or fu'-ě-ro, rec'-tus e'-ris or fu'-e-ris,

rec'-tus e'-rit or fu' e-rit: P. rec'-ti ĕr'-i-mus or fu-ĕr'-i-mus, rec'-ti ĕr'-ĭ-tis or fu-ĕr'-Ĭ-tis,

rec'-ti ĕ'-runt or fu'-ĕ-rint.

#### PASSIVE.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

#### Present.

I may or can rule.

S. rĕ'-gam, rĕ'-gās, rĕ'-găt;

P. rĕ-gā'-mŭs, rĕ-gā'-tĭs, rĕ'-gant. I may or can be ruled.

S. rě'-găr, rě-gā'-rīs or -rě, rě-gā'-tŭr;

P. rĕ-gā'-mŭr, rĕ-gām'-ĭ-nī, rĕ-gan'-tŭr.

# Imperfect.

I might, could, would, or should rule.

S. rĕg'-ĕ-rem, rĕg'-ĕ-rēs, rĕg'-ĕ-rĕt;

P. reg-e-re'-mus, reg-e-re'-tis, reg'-e-rent. I might, could, would, or should be ruled.

S. rĕg'-ĕ-rĕr, rĕg-ĕ-rē'-rĭs or -rĕ, rĕg-ĕ-rē'-tŭr;

P. rěg-ĕ-rē'-mŭr, rĕg-ĕ-rēm'-ĭ-nī, rĕg-ĕ-ren'-tŭr.

#### Perfect.

I may have ruled.

S. rex'-ĕ-rim, rex'-ĕ-rīs, rex'-ĕ-rīt;

P. rex-ĕr'-ĭ-mŭs, rex-ĕr'-ĭ-tĭs, rex'-ĕ-rint. I may have been ruled.

S. rec'-tus sim or fu'-e-rim, rec'-tus sis or fu'-e-ris, rec'-tus sit or fu'-e-rit;

P. rec'-ti si'-mus or fu-er'-i-mus, rec'-ti si'-tis or fu-er'-i-tis, rec'-ti sint or fu'-er-int.

# Pluperfect.

I might, could, would, or should have ruled.

S. rex-is'-sem, rex-is'-sēs, rex-is'-set;

P. rex-is-sē'-mŭs, rex-is-sē'-tīs, rex-is'-sent. I might, could, would, or should have been ruled.

S. rec'-t\u00e4s es'-sem or fu-is'-sem, rec'-t\u00e4s es'-s\u00e5s or fu-is'-s\u00e5s, rec'-t\u00e4s es'-s\u00e5t or fu-is'-s\u00e5t;

P. rec'-tī es-sē'-mŭs or fu-is-sē'-mŭs, rec'-tī es-sē'-tīs or fu-is-sē'-tīs, rec'-tī es'-sent or fu-is'-sent.

#### IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. S. re'-ge, rule thou,

P. reg-1-te, rule ye. Fut. S. reg-1-to, thou shalt rule,

rěg'-i-tő, he shall rule; P. rěg-i-tő'-tě, ye shall rule,

re-gun'-to, they shall rule.

Pres. S. reg'-e-re, be thou ruled;
P. re-gim'-i-ni, be ye ruled.

Fut. S. reg'-i-tor, thou shall be ruled, reg'-i-tor, he shall be ruled;

P. (re-gim'-i-ni, ye shall, etc.) re-gun'-tor, they shall, etc.

#### PASSIVE.

#### INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. rĕg'-ĕ-rĕ, to rule.
Perf. rex-is'-sĕ, to have ruled.
Fut. \_ec-tū'-rūs es'-se, to be about to rule.

Pres. rĕ'-gī, to be ruled.
Perf. rec'-tŭs es'-sĕ or fu-is'-sĕ, to
have been ruled.
Fut. rec'-tum ī'-rī, to be about to
be ruled.

#### PARTICIPLES.

Pres. re'-gens, ruling. Fut. rec-tū'-rus, about to rule. Perf. rec'-tŭs, ruled. Ful. rë-gen'-dŭs, to be ruled.

# GERUND.

G. rĕ-gen'-dī, of ruling.
D. rĕ-gen'-dŏ, etc.

Ac. rě-gen'-dum,

Ab. rě-gen'-dő.

#### SUPINES.

Former. rec'-tum, to rule. | Latter. rec'-tū, to be ruled.

# FORMATION OF THE TENSES.

From the firs	t root, <i>reg</i> rived,	7, are de-	From the seco		rom the third root, rect. are derived,
	Active.	Passive.		Active.	Passive.
Ind. pres.	rego,	regor.	Ind. perf.	rexi,	rectus sum, etc.
- imperf.	regebam,	regebar.	plup.	rexeram,	rectus erain, etc.
fut.	regam,	regar.	- fut. perf.	rexero,	rectus ero, etc.
Subj. pres.	regam,	regar.	Subj. perf.	rexerim,	rectus sim, etc.
- imperf.	regerem,		plup.	rexissem,	rectus essem, etc.
Imperat. pres.		reg <i>ëre</i> .	Inf. perf.	rexisse.	rectus esse, etc.
fut.	regito,	regitor.	From the thi	rd root.	
Inf. pres.	regěre,	regi.	Inf. fut. rec		rectum iri.
Part. pres.	regens,		Part. fut. rec		
- fut.		regendus.	- perf.		rectus.
Gerund.	regendi.		Form. Sup. rec	tum.	Lat. Sup. rectu.

# § 159. VERBS IN IO OF THE THIRD CONJUGATION.

Verbs in io of the third conjugation, in tenses formed from the first root, have, as connecting vowels, ia, ie, io, or iu, wherever the same occur in the fourth conjugation; but where they have only a single connecting vowel, it is the same which characterizes other verbs of the third conjugation. They are all conjugated like  $c\check{a}pio$ .

#### PASSIVE.

# PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. că'-pi-o, to take. Pres. Inf. căp'-c-re. Perf. Ind. ce'-pi. Supine. cap'-tum.

Pres. Ind. că'-pi-ŏr, to be taken. Pres. Inf. că'-pi. Perf. Part. cap'-tus.

# INDICATIVE MOOD.

#### Present.

S. că'-pi-ŏ, că'-pis, că'-pĭt;

P. cap'-i-mus, căp'-i-tis, că'-pi-unt.

S. că'-pi-ŏr, căp'-ĕ-ris or -rĕ, căp'-i-tŭr; P. căp'-i-mur, că-pim'-i-ni, că-pi-un'-tur.

# Imperfect.

S. că-pi-ē'-bam, că-pi-ē'-bās, că-pi-ē'-băt;

P. că-pi-ē-bā'-mŭs, că-pi-ē-bā'-tĭs, că-pi-ē'-bant.

S. că-pi-ē'-băr, că-pi-ē-bā'-ris or -rě, că-pi-ē-bā'-tŭr; P. că-pi-ē-bā'-mŭr,

# că-pi-ē-bām'-i-ni, că-pi-c-ban'-tur.

#### Future.

S. că'-pi-am, că'-pi-ēs, că'-pi-ĕt; P. că-pi-c'-mus, că-pi-ē'-tĭs, că'-pi-ent.

S. că'-pi-ăr, că-pi-ē'-ris or -re, că-pi-ē'-tŭr; P. că-pi-ē'-mŭr, că-pi-ēm'-i-ni, că-pi-en'-tŭr.

The parts formed from the second and third roots being entirely regular, only a synopsis of them is given.

Perf. cē'-pī. Plup. cēp'-e-ram. Fut. perf. cep'-e-ro.

Perf. Plup.

cap'-tus sum or fu'-i. cap'-tus e'-ram or fu'-e-ram. Fut. perf. cap'-tús ě'-ro or fu'-ě-ro.

# SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

#### Present.

S. că'-pi-am, că'-pi-ās, că'-pi-ăt; P. că-pi-ā'-mus, că-pi-ā'-tĭs, că'-pi-ant.

S. că'-pi-ăr, că-pi-ā'-ris or -re, că-pi-ā'-tur; P. că-pi-ā'-mur,

că pi-am'-i-ni, că-pi-an'-tăr.

#### PASSIVE.

# Imperfect.

S. căp'-ě-rem, căp'-ĕ-rēs, căp'-ĕ-rĕt; P. cap-ĕ-rē'-mus, căp-ě-ré'-tis, cap'-ĕ-rent.

S. cap'-e-rer, căp-ĕ-rē'-ris or -rĕ, căp-ĕ-rē'-tŭr; P. căp-ě-rē'-mŭr, căp-ĕ-rēm'-ĭ-nī, căp-ĕ-ren'-tŭr.

Perf. cep'-e-rim. Plup. ce-pis'-sem. Perf. cap'-tus sim or fu'-e-rim. Plup. cap'-tus es'-sem or fu-is'-sem.

# IMPERATIVE MOOD.

 Pres. 2. S. că'-pĕ;
 P. 2. căp'-i-tĕ.
 S. căp'-ĕ-rĕ;
 P. că-pĭm'-i-nī.

 Fut. 2.
 căp'-i-tŏ,
 căp-i-tō-tĕ,
 căp'-i-tŏr,
 căp'-i-tŏr,
 (că-pī-ēm'-i-tō-tĕ,

 - 3. cap'-I-to; ca-pi-un'-to. cap'-I-tor; ca-pi-un'-tor.

căp'-i-tŏr, (că-pi-ēm'-i-ni,)

# INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. căp'-ĕ-rĕ. Perf. cē-pis'-sě. Fut. cap-tū'-rus es'-sě. Pres. că'-pī. Perf. cap'-tus es'-se or fu-is'-se. Fut. cap'-tum i'-ri.

#### PARTICIPLES.

Pres. că'-pi-ens. Fut. cap-tū'-rus.

Perf. cap'-tus. Fut. că-pi-en'-dŭs.

#### GERUND.

G. că-pi-en'-dī, etc.

#### SUPINES.

Former. cap'-tum. | Latter. cap'-tu.

# § 160. FOURTH CONJUGATION.

#### PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. au'-di-ŏ. Pres. Inf. au-dī'-rĕ. Perf. Ind. au-dī'-vī. Supine. au-di'-tum.

Pres. Ind. au'-di-or. Pres. Inf. au-dī'-rī. Perf. Part. au-dī'-tŭs.

#### PASSIVE.

#### INDICATIVE MOOD.

# Present.

#### I hear.

- S. au'-di-ŏ, au'-dīs, au'dīt;
- P. au-di'-mus, au'-di'-tis, au'-di-unt.

# I am heard.

- S. au'-di-ŏr, au-dī'-rĭs or -rĕ, au-dī'-tŭr;
- P. au-di'-mŭr, au-dim'-i-ni, au-di-un'-tŭr.

# Imperfect.

#### I was hearing.

- S. au-di-ē'-bam, au-di-ē'-bās,
- au-di-ē'-bāt;

  P. au-di-ē-bā'-mŭs,
  au-di-ē-bā'-tĭs,
  au-di-ē'-bant.

# I was heard.

- S. au-di-ē'-băr, au-di-ē-bā'-rĭs or -rĕ, au-di-ē-bā'-tŭr;
- au-di-e-ba-tur; P. au-di-e-ba'-mŭr, au-di-e-bam'-i-ni, au-di-e-ban'-tŭr.

# Future.

# I shall or will hear.

- S. au'-di-am, au'-di-es,
- au'-di-ēt;
  P. au-di-ē'-mŭs,
  au-di-ē'-tīs,
  au'-di-ent-

# I shall or will be heard.

- S. au'-di-ăr, au-di-ē'-rĭs or -rĕ, au-di-ē'-tŭr;
- P. au-di-ē'-mŭr, au-di-ēm'-i-nī, au-di-en'-tŭr.

# Perfect.

# I heard or have heard.

- S. au-dī'-vī, au-dī-vis'-tī.
- au-dī'-vĭt;

  P. au-dīv'-ĭ-mŭs,
  au-dī-vis'-tīs,
  au-dī-vē'-runt or -rĕ.

# I have been or was heard.

- S. au-dī'-tŭs sum or fu'-ī, au-dī'-tŭs ës or fu-is'-tī, au-dī'-tŭs est or fu'-īt;
- P. au-dī'-tī sŭ'-mŭs or fu'-ī-mŭs, au-dī'-tī es'-tīs or fu-is'-tīs, au-dī'-tī sunt, fu-ē'-runt or -rē.

# Pluperfect.

# I had heard.

- S. au-dīv'-ĕ-ram, au-dīv'-ĕ-rās, au-dīv'-ĕ-răt:
- P. au-dīv-ĕ-rā'-mŭs, au-dīv-ĕ-rā'-tīs, au-dīv'-ĕ-rant.

# I had been heard.

- S. au-di'-tus e'-ram or fu'-e-ram, au-di'-tus e'-ras or fu'-e-ras, au-di'-tus e'-rat or fu'-e-rat:
- P. au-di'-tī ĕ-rū'-mŭs or fu-ĕ-rū'-mŭs, au-di'-tī ĕ-rū'-tīs or fu-ĕ-rū'-tīs, au-di'-tī ĕ'-rant or fu'-ĕ-rant.

# PASSIVE.

# I shall have heard.

S. au-dīv'-ĕ-rð, au-dīv'-ĕ-rīs, au-div'-ĕ-rit:

P. au-di-věr'-ĭ-mŭs, au-dī-vĕr'-Ĭ-tĭs. au-dīv'-ĕ-rint.

#### Future Perfect.

I shall have been heard.

S. au-dī'-tus ĕ'-rð or fu'-ĕ-rð, au-dī'-tus ĕ'-ris or fu'-ĕ-rīs,

au-di'-tus ë'-rit or fu'-ë-rit: P. au-dī'-tī ĕr'-ĭ-mŭs or fu-ĕr'-ĭ-mŭs. au-dī'-tī ĕr'-ĭ-tīs or fu-ĕr'-ī-tis. au-di'-ti e'-runt or fu'-e-rint.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

#### Present.

I may or can hear.

S. au'-di-am. au'-di-ās, au'-di-ăt;

P. au-di-ā'-mus, au-di-ā'-tĭs. au'-di-ant.

I may or can be heard.

S. au'-di-ăr, au-di-ā'-rīs or -rĕ,

au-di-ā'-tŭr; P. au-di-ā'-mur, au-di-ām'-ĭ-nī. au-di-an'-tŭr.

# Imperfect.

I might, could, would, or should hear.

> S. au-di'-rem. au-dī'-rēs. au-dī'-rĕt;

P. au-dī-rē'-mŭs. au-dī-rē'-tis, au-di'-rent.

I might, could, would, or should be heard.

S. au-dī'-rĕr. au-di-rē'-ris or -rē. au-di-rē'-tur: P. au-di-rē'-mŭr,

au-di-rēm'-i-ni, au-dī-ren'-tŭr.

#### Perfect.

I may have heard.

S. au-div'-ĕ-rim, au-dīv'-ĕ-rīs. au-dīv'-ĕ-rīt;

P. au-dī-vĕr'-Ĭ-mŭs. au-dī-vĕr'-Ĭ-tĭs. au-div'-ĕ-rint.

I may have been heard.

S. au-dī'-tus sim or fu'-č-rim, au-dī'-tūs sīs or fu'-ĕ-rīs. au-di'-tus sit or fu'-ë-rit;

P. au-dī'-tī sī'-mūs or fu-ĕr'-ī-mūs. au-dī'-tī sī'-tīs or fu-ĕr'-Ĭ-tīs, au-dī'-tī sint or fu'-ĕ-rint.

#### I might, could, would, or should have heard.

S. au-dī-vis'-sem, au-dī-vis'-sēs. au-di-vis'-set:

P. au-di-vis-sē'-mus. au-di-vis-sē'-tīs. au-di-vis'-sent.

# Pluperfect.

I might, could, would, or should have been heard.

S. au-di'-tus es'-sem or fu-is'-sem, au-dī'-tūs es'-sēs or fu-is'-sēs. au-di'-tus es'-set or fu-is'-set:

P. au-di'-ti es-se'-mus or fu-is-se'-mus. au-dī'-tī es-sē'-tīs or fu-is-sē'-tīs. au-di'-ti es'-sent or fu-is'-sent.

#### PASSIVE.

#### IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. S. au'-dī, hear thou; P. au-dī'-tĕ, hear ye.

Fut. S. au-dī'-tō, thou shall hear;
au-dī'-tō, he shall hear;

P. au-di-tō'-tĕ, ye shall hear, au-di-un'-tō, they shall hear. Pres. S. au-dī'-rĕ, be thou heard;
P. au-dīm'-ī-nī, be ye heard.
Fut. S. au-dī'-tŏr, thou shalt be

heard, au-dī'-tŏr, he shall be heard;

P. (au-di-ēm'-ĭ-nī, ye shall be heard,) au-di-un'-tŏr, they shall be heard.

#### INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. au-dī'-rĕ, to hear.
Perf. au-dī-vīs'-sĕ, to have heard.
Fut. au-dī-tū'-rūs es-sĕ, to be
about to hear.

Pres. au-di'-rī, to be heard.
Perf. au-di'-tūs es'-sĕ or fu-is'sĕ, to have been heard.
Fut. au-di'-tum i'-rī, to be about
to be heard.

#### PARTICIPLES.

Pres. au'-di-ens, hearing. | Perf. au-di'-tŭs, heard. | Fut. au-di-en'-dŭs, to be heard. | Fut. au-di-en'-dŭs, to be heard.

#### GERUND.

G. au-di-en'-di, of hearing.

D. au-di-en'-dő, etc.

Ab. au-di-en'-dő.

#### SUPINES.

Former. au-dī'-tum, to hear. | Latter. au-dī'-tū, to be heard.

# FORMATION OF THE TENSES.

From the first root, and, are de- | From the second root, From the third root, audiv, are derived, rived audit, are derived, Active. Active. Passive. Passive. andivi, Ind. perf. audītus sum, etc. Ind. pres. andio, andior. — phip. andivéram, anditus eram, etc.
— fut. perf. andivéro, anditus ero, etc.
Subj. perf. andivérim, anditus sim, etc.
— plup. andivissem, anditus essem, etc.
Inf. perf. andivisse, anditus esse, etc. - imperf. audicham, audichar. audiam, audiar. Subj. pres. audiam, andiar. - imperf. audirem, andirer. Imperat. pres. audi, audire.

Inf. pres. audire, audiri.

Part. pres. audires, audiri.

Part. pres. audiens,

Part. fat. auditürus esse, auditum iri.

Part. fat. auditürus esse.

#### DEPONENT VERBS.

§ 161. Deponent verbs are conjugated like the passive voice, and have also all the participles and participial formations of the active voice. Neuter deponent verbs, however, want the future passive participle, except that the neuter in *dum* is sometimes used impersonally. See § 184, 3.

The following is an example of an active deponent verb of the first conjugation:—

#### PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Mī'-ror, mī-rā'-rī, mī-rā'-tus, to admire.

#### INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres.	mī'-rŏr, mī-rā'-rīs, etc.	I admire, etc.
Imperf.	mi-rā'-băr, etc.	I was admiring.
Fut.	mī-rā'-bŏr,	I shall admire.
Perf.	mī-rā'-tŭs sum or fu'-ī,	I have admired.
Plup.	mī-rā'-tus ĕ'-ram or fu'-ĕ-ram,	I had admired.
Fut. Perf.	mī-rā'-tūs ĕ'-ro or fu'-ĕ-ro,	I shall have admired

#### SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Pres.	mī'-rĕr, mī-rē'-rīs, etc.	I may admire, etc.
Imperf.	mi-rā'-rĕr,	I would admire.
Perf.	mī-rā'-tūs sim or fu'-ĕ-rim,	I may have admired.
Plup.	mī-rā'-tūs es'-sem or fu-is'-sem,	I would have admired.

#### IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. S. mī-rā'-rĕ, admire thou;
Fut. S. mī-rā'-tōr, thou shalt admire;
pl. (mīr-ā-bīm'-i-nī, ye shall, etc.)
mī-rā'-tōr, he shall admire;
mran'-tōr, they shall, etc.

#### INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. mī-rā'-rī, to admire.

Perf. mī-rā'-tūs es'-sĕ or fu-is'-sĕ, to kave admired.

Ful. Act. mī-rā-tū'-rūs es'-sĕ, to be about to admire.

Ful. Pass. mī-rā-tum ī'-rī, to be about to be admired.

#### PARTICIPLES.

Pres. mi'-rans, admiring.
Perf. mi'rā'-tūs, having admired.
Fut. Act. mi'rā-tū''-rūs, about to admire.
Fut. Pass. mi'ran'-dūs, to be admired.

#### GERUND.

G. mi-ran'-di, of admiring, etc.

#### SUPINES.

Former. mi-ra'-tum, to admire. | Latter. mi-ra'-tu, to be admired.

#### REMARKS ON THE CONJUGATIONS.

# Of the Tenses formed from the First Root.

§ 162. 1. A few words in the present subjunctive of the first and third conjugations, in the earlier writers and in the poets, end in im, is, it, etc.; as, edim, edis, editi, edimus; comedim, comedis, comedini; for edam, etc. comediam, etc.; dim, duis, duis, duint; and perduin, perduin; perduin; perduin; for dem, etc. perdun, etc. from old forms duo and perduo, for do and perdo so create the conduction of the conduct duis, creduit, and also creduum, creduus, creduut, for credum, etc. from the old form creduo, for credo. The form in im, etc. was retained as the regular form in sim and velim, from sum and volo, and in their compounds.

The imperfect indicative in the fourth conjugation, sometimes, especially in the more ancient writers, ends in ibam and ibar, for iebam and iebar, and the future in ibo and ibor, for iam and iar; as, vestibat, Virg., largibar, Propert., for resticbat, largicbar; scibo, opperibor, for sciam, opperiar. Ibam and ibo were retained as the regular forms of eo, queo, and nequeo. Cf. § 182.

3. The termination re, in the second person singular of the passive voice, is rare in the present, but common in the other simple tenses.

4. The imperatives of dico, dico, facio, and fire, are usually written dic, duc, fac, and fer; in like manner their compounds, except those compounds of facio which change a into i; as, effice, confice; but calface also is found in Cicero; and in old writers dice, educe, addrec, indice, dace, dudace, reduce, traduce, and face. In larger for inglere is rare. So in his not sci, but its place is supplied by scito, and scitote is preferred to scite.

5. In the imperative future of the passive voice, but especially of deponents, early writers and their imitators sometimes used the active instead of the passive form; as, arbitrato, amplexato, utito, nitito; for arbitrator, etc.; and censento, utunto, tuento, etc. for censentor, etc .- In the second and third persons singular occur, also, forms in -mino; as, hortamino, veremino, fruimino; for hortator, etc.

6. The syllable er was often added to the present infinitive passive by early writers and especially by the poets; as, amarier for amari, dicier for dici.

# Of the Tenses formed from the Second Root.

7. (a.) When the second root ends in v, a syncopation and contraction often occur in the tenses formed from it, by omitting v, and sinking the first vowel of the termination in the final vowel of the root, when followed, in the fourth conjugation, by s, and in the other conjugations, by s or r; as, audissem for audivissem, amasti for amavisti, implerant for impleverant, noram and nosse for nověram and novisse.

(b.) When the second root ends in iv, v is often omitted without contraction; as, audiero for audivero; audiisse for audivisse.

(c.) When this root ends in s or x, especially in the third conjugation, the syllables is, iss, and sis, are sometimes omitted in the termination of tenses derived from it; as, evasti for evasisti, extinxti for extinxisti, divisse for divisisse; extinxem for extinxissem, surrexe for surrexisse; accestis for accessistis, justi for jussisti; dixti for dixisti. So faxem for (facsissem, i. e.) fecissem.

(d.) In the perfect of the first, second, and fourth conjugations, a syncope sometimes occurs in the last syllable of the root and the following syllable of the termination, especially in the third person singular; as, fumat, audit, cupit; for fumavit, audivit, cupivit. So, also, but rarely, in the first person; as, sepeli, enarrāmus; for sepelīvi, enarrāvimus.

8. In the third person plural of the perfect indicative active, the form in ere is less common than that in crunt, especially in prose.

9. Ancient forms of a future perfect in so, a perfect and pluperfect subjunctive in sim and sem, and a perfect infinitive in se sometimes occur. They may, in general, be formed by adding these terminations to the second root of the verb; as, recepso, emissim, ansim from the obsolete perfect, ausi, from audeo, confexim and promissem: divisse and promisse. But when the root ends in x, and frequently when it ends in s, only o, im, em, and s, etc. are added; as, jusso, diris; intellexes, percept; surreas, sunse. V, at the end of the root, in the first conjugation, is changed into s; as, lecusso, loorssim. U, at the end of the root, in the second conjugation, is changed into es; as, habesso, licessit. Sometimes the vowel of the present is retained in these forms, though changed in the other parts derived from the second root; as, capso, faxo (facso), faxim (facsim).

Note. Faxo expresses determination, 'I will,' or, 'I am resolved, to make, cause, etc. The subjunctive fazit, etc., expresses a solemn wish; as, dit immortales fazint. Ausim, etc. express doubt or hesitation, 'I might venture,' etc. The perfect in sin is used also in connection with the present subjunctive; as, quaso uti tu calamitates prohibessis, defendus, averruncesque. Cato.

10. In the ancient Latin a few examples occur of a future passive of similar form; as, turbassitur, jussitur, instead of turbatum fuerit, and jussus fuerit.—A future infinitive active in sere is also found, in the first conjugation. which is formed by adding that termination to the second root, changing, as before, v into s: as, expugnassere, impetrassere, for expugnaturum esse, etc.

# Of the Tenses formed from the Third Root.

11. The supine in um, though called one of the principal parts of the verb, belongs in fact to very few verbs, the whole number which have this supine not amounting to three hundred. The part called in dictionaries the supine in um must therefore, in most cases, be considered as the neuter gender of the perfect participle.

12. In the compound tenses of the indicative and subjunctive moods, the participle is always in the nominative case, but it is used in both numbers, and in all genders, to correspond with the number and gender of the subject of the verb; as, amatus, -a, -um, est; amati, -a, -a, sunt, etc.

(1.) Fui, fuëram, fuërim, fuissem, and fuisse, are seldom used in the compound tenses of deponent verbs, and not so often as sum, etc., in those of other verbs, but when used they have generally the same sense. It is to be remarked, however, that fui with the perfect participle usually denotes that which has been, but which no longer exists. In the pluperfect subjunctive, forem, etc., for essem, etc., are sometimes found.

(2.) But as the perfect participle may be used in the sense of an adjective. expressing a permanent state, (see § 162, 22), if then connected with the tenses of sum its meaning is different from that of the participle in the same connection; epistola scripta est, when scripta is a participle, signifies, the letter has been written, but if scripta is an adjective, the meaning of the expression is, the letter is written, and epistola scripta fuit, in this case, would signify, the letter has been written, or, has existed as a written one, implying that it no longer exists.

13. The participles in the perfect and future infinitive, are used only in the nominative and accusative, but in all genders and in both numbers; as, amatus, -a, -um, esse or fuisse; amatum, -am, -um, esse or fuisse; amati, -a, -a, esse or fuisse; amatos, -as, -a, esse or fuisse; and so of the others. With the infinitive fuisse, amatus, etc. are generally to be considered as participial adjectives.

(1.) These participles in combination with esse are sometimes used as indeclinable; as, cohortes ad me missum facias. Cic. Ad me, mea Terentia, scribis, to vicum venditurum. Id.

# Periphrastic Conjugations.

14. The participle in rus, joined to the tenses of the verb sum, denotes either intention, or being upon the point of doing something. This form of the verb is called the active periphrastic conjugation.

REMARK 1. As the performance of the act depends either on the will of the subject, on that of others, or upon circumstances, we may say, in English, in the first case, 'I intend,' and in the others, 'I am to,' or 'I am about to' (be or do any thing).

#### INDICATIVE.

Duna			Town about to Jame
rres.	amatūrus	sum,	I am about to love.
Imperf.	amatūrus	eram,	I was about to love.
Fut.	amatūrus	ero,	I shall be about to love.
Perf.	amatūrus	fui,	I was or have been about to love.
Plup.	amatūrus		I had been about to love.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres.	amatūrus	sim,	I may be about to love.
Imperf.	amatūrus	essem,	I would be about to love.
Perf.	amatūrus	fuĕrim,	I may have been about to love.
Plup.	amatūrus	fuissem,	I would have been about to love.

#### INFINITIVE.

Pres.	amatūrus esse	, to be about to love.
Perf.	amatūrus fuis	se, to have been about to love.

REM. 2. Fuero is scarcely used in connection with the participle in rus.

REM. 3. Amatūrus sim and amatūrus essem serve also as subjunctives to the future amābo. The infinitive amatūrus juisse answers to the English, 'I should have loved,' so that in hypothetical sentences it supplies the place of an infinitive of the pluperfect subjunctive.

REM. 4. In the passive, the fact that an act is about to be performed is expressed by a longer circumlocution; as, in eo est, or futurum est, ut epistola scribātur, a letter is about to be written. So in eo erat, etc., through all the tenses.

15. The participle in dus, with the verb sum, expresses necessity or propriety; as, amandus sum, I must be loved, or deserve to be loved. With the various moods and tenses of sum, it forms a passive periphrastic conjugation;—thus:

DICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE

Perf.

amandna sin

amandus fuisse.

1 / 60.	amandus	Sum,	1 / 60.	amanuus	211119
Imperf.	amandus	ĕram,	Imperf.	amandus	essem,
Fut.	amandus	ĕro,	Perf.	amandus	fuěrim,
Perf.	amandus	fui,	Plup.	amandus	fuissem
Plup. Fut Port	amandus amandus		1	INFINITIV	E.
ut. I erj.	amandus	ruero.	Pres.	amandus	esse,

mandua aum

REM. 5. The neuter of the participle in dus with est and the dative of a person, expresses the necessity of performing the action on the part of that person; as, mihi scribendum est, I must write, etc., and so through all the tenses.

# Participles.

16. The following perfect participles of neuter verbs, like those of active deponents, are translated by active participles:—cenālus, having supped; pôtus, having drunk; pransus, having dined; and sometimes jurātus, having sworn. So also adultus, coalitus, conspirâtus, interitus, or asus, obsolitus, and crêus.

For the active meaning of osus and its compounds, see § 183, 1.

17. (a.) The perfect participles of some deponent verbs have both an active and a passive sense; as, adeptus libertātem, having obtained liberty, or adeptâ libertāte, liberty having been obtained. Cf. § 142, 4, (b.)

So abominātus, comitātus, commentātus, complexus, confessus, contestātus, detestātus, dignātus, dimensus, efiātus, emensus, emeritus, emeritus, expertus, exrecrātus, interpretātus, largitus, machinātus, meditātus, merrātus, metātus, oblitus, opinātus, orsus, pactus, partītus, perfunctus, perichitātus, policitus, populātus, depopulātus, stipiatius, testātus, ultus, venerātus.

(b.) The participle in dus, of deponent verbs, is commonly passive.

18. The perfect participles of neuter passive verbs have the signification of the active voice; as, gavisus, having rejoiced. But ausus is used both in an active and a passive sense.

19. The genitive plural of participles in rus is seldom used, except that of futūrus. Venturōrum is found in Ovid, exiturārum, transturārum and periturōrum in Seneca, and moriturōrum in Augustine.

20. In the third and fourth conjugations, the gerund and future passive participle (including deponents) sometimes end in undum and undus, instead of endum and endus, especially when i precedes; as, faciundum, audiundum, scribundus. Polior has usually potiundus.

21. Many present and perfect participles are compounded with in, signifying not, whose verbs do not admit of such composition; they thus become adjectives; as, insciens, ignorant; impariatus, unprepared.

22. Participles, when they do not express distinctions of time, become adjectives, and as such are compared; as, amans, loving; amantion, amantissimus. They sometimes also become substantives; as, prefectus, a commander; ausum, an attempt; commissum, an offence.

Note. Many words derived from substantives, with the terminations of patticiples,  $\hat{a}tus$ ,  $\hat{t}us$ , and  $\hat{a}tus$ , are yet adjectives; as,  $al\hat{a}tus$ , winged; turritus, turreted, etc. See § 128, 7.

# GENERAL RULES OF CONJUGATION.

§ 163. 1. Verbs which have a in the first root have it also in the third, even when it is changed in the second; as,  $f\bar{a}cio$ , fuctum;  $h\bar{a}beo$ ,  $hab\bar{u}tum$ .

2. The connecting vowel is often omitted in the second root, and in such cases, if v follows, it is changed into u. This happens in most verbs of the second conjugation.

REMARK. Some verbs of the first, second, and third conjugations prefix to the second root their initial consonant with the vowel which follows it, or with \(\vec{e}\_i\); as, curro, c\(\vec{u}\)curri; fallo, f\(\vec{e}\)felli. This prefix is called a reduplication.

NOTE 1. Spondeo and sto lose s in the second syllable, making spopondi and stiti. For the verbs that take a reduplication, see §§ 165, R. 2; 168, N. 2; 171, Exc. 1, (b.)

3. Verbs which want the second root commonly want the third root also.

 Compound verbs form their second and third roots like the simper verbs of which they are compounded; as, audio, audivi, auditum; exaudio, exaudivi, exauditum.

NOTE 2. Some compound verbs, however, are defective, whose simples are complete, and some are complete, whose simples are defective.

Exc. 1. Compound verbs omit the reduplication; but the compounds of do, sto, disco, posco, and some of those of curro, retain it.

Exc. 2. Verbs which, in composition, change a into e in the first root, (see § 189, 1,) retain e in the second and third roots of the compound; as, scando, scandi, scansum; descendo, descendi, descensum.

Exc. 3. (a.) When a, a, or e, in the first root of the simple verb, is changed in the compound into i, (see § 189, 2.) the same is retained in the second and third roots, in case the third root of the simple verb is a dissyllable; as, hābeo, hābui, hābūtum; prohībo, prohībui, prohībūtum.

(b.) But if the third root is a monosyllable, the second root of the compound has usually the same vowel as that of the simple, but sometimes changes a or e into i, and the third root has e; as, făcio, fêci, factum; confecio, confectum; těneo, těnui, tentum; retineo, retinui, retentum; răpio, răpui, raptum; abripio, abripui, abreptum.

Note 3. The compounds of cado, ago, frango, pango, and tango, retain a in the third root. See § 172.

Exc. 4. The compounds of pǎrio, (ère), and some of the compounds of do an eiro of different conjugations from their simple verbs. See do, cubo and pàrio in §§ 165 and 172.

A few other exceptions will be noticed in the following lists.

# FORMATION OF SECOND AND THIRD ROOTS.

#### FIRST CONJUGATION.

§ 164. In regular verbs of this conjugation, the second root ends in  $\bar{a}v$ , and the third in  $\bar{a}t$ ; as, amo, amāvi, amātum.

The following list contains such regular verbs of this conjugation as are of most frequent occurrence.

Note. In this and subsequent lists, those verbs which are marked \* are said to have no perfect participle; those marked † to have no present participle. A dash[—] after the present, denotes that there is no second root. The participles in rus and us, and the suplnes in ur and u which are in use, are indicated respectively by the letters r, d, u, u, and u. Abundo, for example, has no perfect participle, no supine, no participle in dus; but it has a present participle, and a participle in rus.

In the lists of irregular verbs, those compounds only are given, whose conjugation dif-

fers from that of their simples.

\*Abundo, r. to overflow.

Adumbro, to delineate.

Ædifico, r. d. to build.

Accuso, m. r. d. to accuse.

When p, is subjoined to a deponent verb, it denotes that some of the parts which have commonly an active meaning, are used either actively and passively, or passively alone. Such verbs are by some grammarians called *common*. Cf. § 142, 4, (b.)

Æquo, r. d. to level. Æstimo, r. d. to value. \*Ambülo, m. d. to walk. Amo, r. d. to love. † Amplio, d. to enlarge. Appello, d. to call. Apto, d. to fit. Aro, r. d. to plough. \*† Ausculto, to listen. \*† Autumo, to assert. † Bāsio, -, d. to kiss. \*Bello, m. r. d. to wage war. † Beo. to bless. \*Boo, to bellow. † Brěvio, to shorten. † Cæco, to blind. † Cælo, to carre. † Calceo, d. to shoe. \* † Calcitro, to kick. Canto, m. to sing. Capto, m. r. d. to seize. † Castigo, m. d. to chastise. Celebro, d. to celebrate. Celo, d. to conceal. Cesso, d. to cease. Certo, r. d. to strive. Clamo, to shout. Cogito, d. to think. Concilio, r. d. to conciliate. Considéro, r. d. to con-

Cremo, d. to burn.-concremo, r.

†Creo, r. d. to create. Crücio, d. to torment. Culpo, r. d. to blume. †Cunco, d. to wedge in. Curo, r. d. to care for. Damno, m. r. d. to condemn.

Decoro, d. to adorn. \*†Delineo, to delineate. Desidero, r. d. to desire. Destino, d. to design.
Dico, m. r. d. to dedicate.
Dicto, to dictate.
†Dilo, to hew.
Dino, r. d. to bestow.
Duplico, r. d. to double.
Düro, r. to harden.
†Effligio, to portray.
†Enncleo, to explain.
Equito, to ride.
Erro, to wander.
Existimo, u. r. d. to think.
Existimo, u. r. d. to search.

ished.
Fabrico, d. to frame.
†Fatigo, r. d. to weary.
Festino, r. to hasten.
Firmo, r. d. to strengthen.
Flagito, m. d. to demand.
\*Flagro, r. to be on fire.—
conflagro, r.—deflagro.

Exsălo, m. r. to be ban-

Flo, d. to blow.
Forno, r. d. to form.
Foro, d. to bore.
Frando, d. to bore.
Frando, d. to defraud.
Frēno, w bridle.
Frēno, to crumble.
Fryo, r. d. to put to flight.
Frundo, r. to found.
Frino, -, to madden.
IGaleo, --, to put on a helmet.

nemet.

Gesto, d. to bear.

Glàcio, —, to congeal.

Gravo, d. to weigh down.

Gusto, d. to taste.

Habito, m. d. to dwell.

Hillio, —, to be rathe.

Hiemo, m. to winter.

\*Hio, d. to gape.

†Humo, r. d. to bury.

Ignôro, r. d. to be ignorant of:

Impero, r. d. to command. †Impetro, r. d. to obtain. Inchoo, r. to begin. Indago, r. d. to trace out.

Indico, m. r. d. to show. † Inēbrio,—, to inebriate. Inītio, to initiate. Inquino, to pollute. Instauro, d. to renew. Intro, r. d. to enter. Invito, d. to invite. Irrito, r. d. to irritate. Itero, u. d. to do again. Jacto, r. d. to throw. Judico, r. d. to judge. Jugo, d. to couple. Jugulo, m. d. to butcher. Juro, d. to swear. Laboro, r. d. to labor. Lacero, d. to tear. \*Lacto, to suckle. † Lănio, d. to tear in pieces. Latro, to bark. Laudo, r. d. to praise. Laxo, d. to loose. † Lego, to depute. Levo, r. d. to lighten. Libero, r. d. to free. Libo, d. to pour out. Ligo, to bind. † Liquo, d. to melt. Lito, to appease. Loco, r. d. to place. Lustro, d. to survey. Luxurio, to be luxuriant. Macto, d. to sacrifice. Maculo, to spot, stain. Mando, r. d. to command. Manduco, to chew. \*Mano, to flow. Matūro, d. to ripen. Memoro, u. d. to tell. \*Meo, to go. \*Migro, u. r. d. to depart. \*Milito, m. r. to serve as a soldier.

†Minio, d. to paint red. Ministro, d. to serve. Mitigo, d. to pacify. Monstro, r. to show.-†demonstro, d.

Mûto, r. d. to change.

Narro, r. d. to tell.

Nato, m. r. to swim. \*Nauseo, to be sea-sick. † Navigo, r. d. to sail. Nāvo, r. d. to perform. Něgo, m. r. d. to deny. \*No, to swim. Nomino, r. d. to name. Noto, d. to mark. Novo, r. d. to renew. Nūdo, d. to make bare. Nuncupo, r. d. to name. Nuntio, m. r. to tell .renuntio, d. \*Nūto, r. to nod. Obsecro, in. r. d. to beseech. Obtrunco, r. to kill. Onero, r. d. to load. Opto, d. to wish. †Orbo, r. to bereave. Orno, r. d. to adorn. Oro, m. r. d. to beg. Paco, d. to subdue. Paro, r. d. to prepare. comparo, d. to compare. Patro, r. d. to perform. \*Pecco, r. d. to sin. †Pio, d. to propitiate. Placo, r. d. to appease. Ploro, m. d. to bewail. Porto, u. r. d. to carry. Postulo, m. r. d. to demand. Prīvo, d. to deprire. Probo, m. u. r. d. to approve.-comprobo, in. Profligo, d. to rout. Propero, d. to hasten. \*†Propino, to drink to. Propitio, d. to appease. Pugno, r. d. to fight. Pulso, d. to beat. Purgo, u. r. d. to cleanse.

Păto, d. to reckon. Quasso, d. to shake. Radio, to emit rays. Rapto, d. to drug away. Recupéro, m. r. d. to re-Recūso, r. d. to refuse. Redundo, to overflow. Regno, r. d. to rule. Repudio, r. d. to reject. Resero, d. to unlock. \*†Retālio, —, to retaliate. Rigo, to water. Rogo, m. r. d. to ask. Roto, to whirl around. Sacrifico, m. to sacrifice. Sacro, d. to consecrate. † Sagino, d. to fatten. Salto, r. to dance. Salūto, m. r. d. to salute. Sāno, r. d. to heal. Satio, to satiate. † Satúro, to fill. Saucio, d. to wound. \*Secundo, to prosper. Sēdo, m. d. to allay. Servo, r. d. to keep. \*†Sibilo, to hiss. Sicco, d. to dry. Signo, r. d. to mark out .assigno, m. Simulo, r. d. to pretend. Socio, d. to associate. \*Sommio, to dream. Specto, in. r. d. to behold. Spēro, r. d. to hope. \*Spiro, to breathe.—conspīro. — exspīro, r. suspīro. d. Spolio, m. d. to rob. Spūmo, to foam. Stillo, to drop. Stimulo, to good. Stipo, to stuff.

Sudo, to sweat. Suffoco, to strangle. Sugillo, d. to taunt. Supero, r. d. to overcome. Suppedito, to afford. \*Supplico, m. to supplicate. \*Susurro, to whisper. Tardo, to delay. Taxo, d. to rate. Teméro, d. to defile. Tempero, r. d. to temper. -obtempero, r. to obey. Tento, m. r. d. to try. Terebro, to bore. Termino, r. d. to limit. Titubo, to stagger. Tolero, u. r. d. to bear. Tracto, u. d. to handle. \*† Tripudio, to dance. Triumpho, r. to triumph. Trucido, r. d. to kill. Turbo, d. to disturb. \*Vaco, to be at leisure. \*Vapulo, m. d. to be beaten. Cf. § 142, 3. Vărio, to diversify. Vasto, d. to lay waste. Vellico, to pluck. Verbero, r. d. to beat. \*Vestigo, to search for. Vexo, d. to tease. Vibro, d. to brandish. Vigilo, to watch. Violo, m. r. d. to violate. VItio, d. to vitiate. Vito, u. d. to shun. Ululo, to howl. Umbro, r. to shade. Voco, r. d. to call. \*Volo, to fly. Voro, r. to devour. Vulgo, r. d. to publish. Vulnero, d. to wound.

§ 165. The following verbs of the first conjugation are either irregular or defective.

\*Crěpo, crepui, to make a noise. \*diserepo, -ui, or -āvi. inerepo, -ui or -āvi, -ttum or -ātum. \*†pererepo, -... \*†recrepo, -...

\*Cubo, cubui, (perf. subj. cuburis; inf. cubasse), cubitam (sup.), to recline, incubo, -ui or āvi, d. Those compounds of cubo which take in before b, are of the third conjugation.

Do, dědi, dátum, m. r. d. to gire.— So circumdo, pessumdo, satisdo, and venumdo; the other compounds of do are of the third conjugation. See § 163, Exc. 1.

Domo, domui, domītum, r. d. to tame. Frico, frieui, frictum or frieātum, d. to rub. confrico, —, -ātum or -ctum. Jūvo, jūvi, jūtum, r. d., also juvatū-

Jūvo, jūvi, jūtum, r. d., also juvatūrus, to help. ādjūvo, -jūvi, -jūtum, m. r. d. also adjuvatūrus. \*Lābo, labasse, to totter. Lăvo, lāvi, rar. lăvāvi, lavātum, lautum or lotum; (sup.) lautum or lavatum, lavatūrus, d. to wash. Lavo is also sometimes of the third conjugation.

\*Mico, micui, d. to glitter. dimico, -āvi or -ui, -atūrus. \*emico, -ui, -atūrus. \*intermico, --. \*promico, -, d.

Něco, necāvi or necui, necātum, r. d. to kill. eneco, -avi or -ui, -atum, or \*†Nexo, —, to tie.

Plico, —, plicatum, to fold. duplico,

-āvi, -ātum, r. d. multiplico and re-plico have -āvi, -ātum. \*supplico, -āvi, m. r. applico, -āvi or -ui, -ātum or -itum, -itūrus. So implico. -complico, -ui, -itum or ātum. explico, -āvi or -ui, -ātum or -ītum, -atūrus or -itūrus.

Poto, potāvi, potātum or potum, r. r. m. m. d. to drink. tepoto, -avi, -um.

-\*perpōto, -āvi. Seco, secui, sectum, secatūrus, d. to

cut.—\*circumsĕco, —. \*intersĕco, —, d. \*persĕco, -ui. præsĕco, -ui, -tum or -ātum. So resĕco, d.

\*Sono, sonui, -athrus, d. to sound. \*consono, -ui. So ex-, in-, per-, præ-sono. \*resono, -avi. \*assono, So circumsono and dissono.

\*Sto, stěti, stătūrus, to stand. \*antesto, -stěti. So circumsto, intersto, supersto.—Its compounds with mo-nosyllabic prepositions have stiti; as, \*consto, -stiti, -statūrus. sto, insto, obsto, persto. \*præsto. -stīti, -stătūrus, d. \*\*adsto or asto, -stiti, -stitūrus. \*prosto, -stiti. So resto, restiti: but subj. perf. restavě-So substo and supersto.

\*Tono, tonni, to thunder. So circumtono. attono, -ui, -ĭtum. -ui, -ātum. \*retono, -Věto, vetni, rarely āvi, vetitum, to

forbid.

REMARK 1. The principal irregularity, in verbs of the first and second conjugations, consists in the omission of the connecting vowel in the second root, and the change of the long vowels a and e in the third root into t. The v remaining at the end of the second root, when it follows a consonant, is pronounced as u; as, cubo, (cubāvi, by syncope cubvi), i. e. cubui; (cubātum, by change of the connecting vowel, cubitum. Sometimes in the first conjugation, and very frequently in the second, the connecting vowel is omitted in the third root also; as, juvo, (āre) jūvi, jūlum; tēneo, (ēre) tēnui, tentum. In the second conjugation several verbs whose general root ends in d and g, and a few others of different terminations, form either their second or third root or both, like verbs of the third conjugation, by adding s; as, rideo, risi, risum.

REM. 2. The verbs of the first conjugation whose perfects take a reduplication are do, sto, and their compounds.

REM. 3. The following verbs in 60 are of the first conjugation, viz. beo, calceo. creo, cuneo, enucleo, illáqueo, collineo, delineo, meo, nauseo, screo; eo and its compounds are of the fourth.

# All deponent verbs, of the first conjugation, are regular, and are conjugated like miror, § 161; as,

Abominor, d. to abhor. Adnlor, d. to flatter. Æmnlor, d. to rival. Ancillor, to be a handmaid. \*Apricor, to bask in the sun.

Arbitror, r. d. to think. Aspernor, d. p. to despise. Aucupor, r. p. to hunt after.

Auxilior, p. to help. Aversor, d. to dislike. Bacchor, p. to revel.

Calumnior, to censure unfairly.

Causor, to allege. \*Comissor, m. to revel. Comitor, p. to accompany. Concionor, to harangue. \*Confabilior, m. to con-

verse together. Conor, d. to endeavor. † Conspicor, to see.

Contemplor, d. p. to view attentively. Criminor, m. p. to com-

plain of. Cunctor, d. p. to delay. Deprécor, m. r. d. p. to deprecate.

\*† Digladior, to fence. Dignor, d. p. to deem wor-

thu. Dominor, p. to rule. Epulor, r. d. to feast. \*Famulor, m. to wait on. Fatur, (defect.) u. d. p.

to speak. See § 183, 6. †Ferior, r. to keep holiday. \*Frumentor, m. to forage.

Füror, m. to steal. Glorior, r. d. to boast. Gratulor, m. d. to congratulate.

Hariölor, to practise sooth-Hortor, d. to encourage. Imitor, u. r. d. to imitate. Indignor, d. to disdain. Infitior, d. to deny. Insector, to pursue. Insidior, r. d. to lie in wait for.

Interpretor, p. to explain. Jaculor, p. to hurl. Jocor, to jest. Lætor, r. d. p. to rejoice. Lamentor, d. p. to bewail. \*†Lignor, m. to gather

wood. Luctor, d. to wrestle. Medicor, r. d. p. to heal. Meditor, p. to meditate. Mercor, m. r. d. p. to buy. Minor, to threaten. Miror, u. r. d. to admire. Miseror, d. to pity. Moderor, u. d. to govern.

Modălor, d. p. to modulate. Moror, r. d. to delay. † Mūtuor, p. to borrow. Negotior, r. to traffic. \*† Nugor, to trifle. Obsouor, m. to cater.

Obtestor, p. to beseech. Operor, to work. Opinor, u. r. d. to think. Opitulor, m. to help. †Otior, to be at leisure. Pabulor, m. d. to graze.

Palor, to wander about. Percontor, m. to inquire. Periclitor, d. p. to try. †Piscor, m. to fish. Populor, r. d. p. to lay waste.

Prædor, m. p. to plunder. Précor, m. u. r. d. to pray. Prœlior, to fight. Recordor, d. to recollect. Rimor, d. to search.

Rixor, to quarrel.

\*RustIcor, to live in the country. Sciscitor, m. p. to inquire. \*Scitor, in. to ask.

Scrutor, p. to search. Solor, d. to comfort. Spatior, to walk about. Speculor, m. r. d. to spy Stiphlor, p. to bargain,

stipulate. †Suavior, d. to kiss. Suspicor, to suspect. Testificor, p. to testify. Testor, d. p. to testify. So detestor. Tutor, to defend.

Veneror, d. p. to venerate, worship. Venor, m. p. to hunt. Versor, to be employed. Vociferor, to bawl.

Vagor, to wander.

Note. Some deponents of the first conjugation are derived from nouns, and signify being or practising that which the noun denotes; as, ancillari, to be a handmaid; hariolari, to practise soothsaying; from ancilla and hariolus.

# SECOND CONJUGATION.

§ 167. Verbs of the second conjugation end in eo, and form their second and third roots in u and it; as, moneo, monui, monřtum.

The following list contains most of the regular verbs of this conjugation, and many also which want the second and third roots:-

- \*Aceo, to be sour.
- \* Ægreo, -, to be sick.
- \*Albeo, —, to be white. \*Arceo, d. to drice away; part. adj. arctus or artus. The compounds change a into e: as, coerceo, d. to restrain. exerceo, r. d. to exercise.
- \*Areo. to be dry.
- \*Aveo, -, to covet. \*Căleo, r. to be warm.
- \*Calleo, -, to be hardened. \*percalleo, to know well.
- \*Calveo, —, to be hald. \*Candeo, to be white.
- \*Caneo, to be hoary.
- \*Căreo, r. d. to want.
- \*Ceveo, -, to fuwn.

- \*Clāreo, —, to be bright. \*Cluco, —, to be famous.
- \*Denseo, -, to thicken. \*Diribeo, -, to sort the voting tablets.
- \*Dôleo, r. d. to grieve.
- \*Egeo, r. to want.
- \*Emineo, to rise above.
- \*Flacceo, to droop.
- \*Flaveo, —, to be yellow. \*Flareo, to blossom.
- \*Frigeo, —, to be fetid. \*Frigeo, —, to be cold. \*Frondeo, —, to bear
- Habeo, r. d. to have. The
  - compounds, except posthabeo, change à into 1; as ad-, ex-, pro-hibeo. cohibeo, d. to restrain. inhibeo, d. to hinder.

- \* perhibeo, d. to report. † posthabeo, to postpone.
- præbeo, (for præhib-eo), r. d. to afford. \*præhibeo, —. debeo, (for dehabeo), r. d. to
- \*Hěbeo, —, to be dull.
- \*Horreo, d. to be rough. \*Humeo, -. to be moist.
- \*Jaceo, r. to lie. \*Lacteo, —, to suck. \*Langueo, —, to be faint. \*Lăteo, to lie hid.
- \*Lenteo, -, to be slow. \*Liceo, to be valued.
- \*Līveo, —, to be livid. \*Māceo, —, to be lean. \*Mādeo, to be wet.
- \*Mæreo, —, to grieve. Měreo, r. to deserve.

†comměreo, to fully de-†dēměreo, d. to earn. †emèreo, to serre \*tperout one's time. měreo, --, to go through service. proměreo, to deserve.

Moneo, r. d. to advise. admoneo, m. r. d. to recommoneo, to impress upon. præmöneo, to forewarn.

\*Muceo, —, to be mouldy. \*Nigreo, —, to be black.

\*Niteo, to shine. Nocco, m. r. to hurt.

\*Oleo, to smell. \*Palleo, to be pale. \*Pāreo, m. r. d. to obey. \*Pateo, to be open.

Pláceo, to please. \*Polleo, —, to be able.

\*Putco, to struk. \*Putreo, to be putrid. \*Renīdeo, —, to glitter.

\*Rigeo, to be stiff. \*Rubeo, to be red.

\*Scăteo, —, to yush forth. \*Seneo, -, to be old.

\*Silco, d. to be silent. \*Sordeo, —, to be filthy.

\*Splendeo, -, to shine.

\*Squāleo, —, to be foul. \*Strideo, —, to creak. \*Studeo, d. to study. \*Stupeo, to be amuzed.

\*Sueo, -, to be wont. Tăceo, r. d. to be silent. \*Těpeo, to be warm.

Terreo, d. to terrify. So deterreo, to deter. †ab-sterreo, to deter. †conterreo, †exterreo, †perterreo, to frighten.

\*Timeo, d. to fear. \*Torpeo, -, to be stiff.

\*Tumeo, to swell.

\*Valco, r. to be able. \*Vegeo, -, to arouse.

\*Vieo, -, to plait. Pa. viētus, shriveled. \*Vigeo, to flourish. \*Vireo, to be green.

\*Uveo, -, to be moist.

§ 168. The following verbs of the second conjugation are irregular in their second or third roots or in both.

Note 1. As the proper form of verbs of the first conjugation is, o, āvi, ātum, of the fourth io, ivi, itum, so that of the second would be eo, evi, etum. Very few of the latter conjugation, however, retain this form, but most of them, as noticed in § 165, Rem. 1, drop in the second root the connecting vowel, ē, and those in reo drop ve; as, caveo, (cavevi) cavi, (cavetum or cavitum) coutum. Others, imitating the form of those verbs of the third conjugation whose general root ends in a consonant, add s to form the second and third roots. Cf. § 165, Rem. 1, and §171.

NOTE 2. Four verbs of the second conjugation take a reduplication in the parts formed from the second root, viz. mordeo, pendeo, spondeo, and tondeo. See § 163, Rem.

Abŏleo, -ēvi, -ĭtum, r. d. to efface. \*Algeo, alsi, to be cold.

Ardeo, arsi, arsum, r. to burn. Audeo, ausus sum, (rarely ausi, whence ausim, § 183, R. 1,) r. d. to dare.

Augeo, auxi, anctum, r. d. to increase. Cáveo, cāvi, cautum, m. d. to beware. Censeo, censui, censum, d. to think. recenseo, -ui, -um or -ītum. \*per-

censeo, -ui. \*succenseo, -ui, d. Cieo, cīvi, cītum, to excite. There is

ieo, civi, cittini, w excess
a cognate form, cio, of the fourth
conjugation, both of the simple verb
and of its compounds. The penult of the participles excitus and concitus is common, and that of accitus is always long.

\*Conniveo, -nivi, to wink at. Dēleo, -ēvi, -ētum, d. to blot out. Doceo, docui, doctum, d. to teach. \*Faveo, favi, fautūrus, to faror. \*Ferveo, ferbui, to boil. Sometimes 5 fervo, vi, of the third conjugation. Flec, flevi, fletum, r. d. to weep. Foveo, fovi, fotnin, d. to cherish.

\*Fulgeo, fulsi, to shine. Fulgo, of the third conjugation, is also in use.

Gaudeo, gavīsus sum, r. to rejoice. § 142, 2. \*Hæreo, hæsi, hæsūrus, to stick. So

ad-, co-, in-, ob- hæreo; but \*subhæ-Indulgeo, indulsi, indultum, r. d. to in-

Jňbeo, jussi, jussum, r. d. to order.

\*Luceo, luxi, to shine. polluceo, -luxi, -luctum.

\*Lūgeo, luxi, d. to mourn. \*Maneo, mansi, mansum, m. r. d. to

remain. Misceo, miscui, mistum or mixtum,

misturus, d. to mix. Mordeo, momordi, morsnm, d. to bite.

remordco, -di, -morsum, r. Moveo, movi, motum, r. d. to move. Mulceo, mulsi, mulsum, d. to soothe.

permulceo, permulsi, permulsum and perrauletum, to rub gently. \*Mulgeo, mulsi or mulxi, to milk.

emulgeo, -, emulsum, to milk out.

Neo, nēvi, nētum, to spin.

\*Paveo, pavi, d. to fear.
\*Pendeo, pependi, to hang. \*impendeo, —, propensum.

Pleo, (obsolete). compleo, -ēvi, -ētum, to fill. So the other compounds. Prandeo, prandi, pransum, r. to dine. Rīdeo, rīsi, rīsum, m. r. d. to laugh.

\*Sedeo, sedi, sessum, m. r. to sit. The compounds with monosyllabic pre-

positions change e into i, in the first root; as, insideo, insēdi, insessum. \*dissideo, -sēdi. So præstdeo, and rarely circumsideo.

Suleo, solitus sum and rarely solui, to be accustomed. § 142, 2.

\*Sorbeo, sorbui, to suck in. So \*exsorbeo: but \*resorbeo, -. \*absorbeo, -sorbui or -sorpsi.

Spondeo, spopondi, sponsum, to pro-mise. See § 163, Rem. \*Strīdeo, īdi, to whiz.

Suadeo, suasi, suasum, r. d. to advise. Těneo, těnui, tentum, r. d. to hold. The compounds change e into Y in the first and second mots; as, detineo, detinui, detentum. \*attineo, -tinui. So pertineo.

Tergeo, tersi, tersum, to wipe. Tergo, of the third conjugation, is also in use. Tondeo, totondi, tonsum, to shear. The compounds have the perfect tondi.

Torqueo, torsi, tortum, d. to twist. Torreo, torrui, tostum, to roast.

\*Turgeo, tursi, to swell. \*Urgeo or urgueo, ursi, d. to urge. Video, vidi, visum, m. u. r. d. to sec. Voveo, vovi, votuni, d. to vow.

#### § 169. Impersonal Verbs of the Second Conjugation.

Décet, decuit, it becomes. Libet, libuit or libitum est, it pleases,

is agreeable. Licet, licuit or licitum est, it is lawful,

or permitted. Liquet, liquit, it is clear, evident. Miseret, miseruit or miseritum est,

it mores to pity; miseret me, I pity. Oportet, oportuit, it behooves.

Piget, piguit or pigitum est, d. it troubles, grieves.

Pœnitet, pœnituit, pœnitūrus, d. it repents; pœnitet me, I regret. Podet, puduit or puditum est, d.; it

shames; pudet me, I am ashamed. Tædet, tædnit or tæsum est, it disgusts or wearies. pertædet, pertæsum est.

Note. Libet is sometimes written for libet, especially in the comic writers.

# § 170. Deponent Verbs of the Second Conjugation.

Făteor, fassus, r. d. p. to confess. The compounds change a into 1 in the first root, and into e in the third; as, confiteor, confessus, d. p. to acknowledge. \* tdiffiteor, to deny. profiteor, professus, d. p. to declare. Liceor, licitus, to bid a price.

\*Mědeor, d. to cure. Měreor, meritus, to deserve. Misereor, miseritus or misertus, to pity. Polliceor, pollicitus, p. to promise. Reor, ratus, to think, suppose. Tueor, tuitus, d. p. to protect. Věreor, veritus, d. p. to fear.

#### THIRD CONJUGATION.

§ 171. In the third conjugation, when the first root ends with a consonant, the second root is regularly formed by adding s; when it ends with a vowel, the first and second roots are the same: the third root is formed by adding t; as, carpo, carpsi, carptum; arguo, argui, argūtum.

In annexing s and t, certain changes occur in the final consonant of the root :-

1. The palatals c, g, qu, and also h, at the end of the first root, form with s the double letter x in the second root; in the third root, c remains, and the others are changed into c before t; as, dico, (dicsi, i. e.), dixi, dictum; rego, (regsi, i. 6.), rexi, rectum; veho, vexi, vectum; coquo, coxi, coctum.

NOTE. Fluo and struo form their second and third roots after the analogy of verbs whose first root ends in a palatal or h.

2. B is changed into p before s and t; as, scribo, scripsi, scriptum.

3. D and t, before s, are either dropped, or changed into s; as, claudo, clausi;  $c\bar{c}do$ , cessi; mito, misi. Cf. § 56, 1, Rem. 1. After m, p is sometimes inserted before s and t; as,  $s\bar{s}mo$ , sumpsi, sumptum. R is changed to s before s and t in  $g\bar{e}ro$  and iro.

4. Some other consonants are dropped, or changed into s, in certain verbs.

Exc. 1. Many verbs whose first root ends in a consonant, do not add s to form the second root.

(a.) Of these, some have the second root the same as the first, but the vowel of the second root, if a monosyllable, is long; as,

Ico, Mando. Scăbo. Solvo. Verro, Excudo, Edo, Fodio, Lambo, Prehendo. Scando, Strido. Verto. Emo. Fŭgio, Lěgo, Psallo, Sido, Tollo, Volvo: to which add the compounds of the obsolete cando, fendo, and nuo.

(b.) Some make a change in the first root. Of these, some change a vowel, some drop a consonant, some prefix a reduplication, others admit two or more of these changes; as,

Ago, ēgi.	Căpio, cēpi.	Făcio, feci.
Findo, fidi.	Frango, fregi.	Fundo, fūdi.
Jacio, jēci.	Linguo, liqui.	Rumpo, rūpi.
Scindo, scidi.	Sisto, stiti.	Vinco, vici.

Those which have a reduplication are

Cădo, cĕcidi.	Cædo, cĕcīdi.	Căno, cecini.
Curro, căcurri.	Disco, didici.	Fallo, f ěfelli.
Pago, (obs.) pěpigi	Parco, peperci.	Părio, peperi.
and pēgi.	Pēdo, pēpēdi.	Pello, pepuli.
Pendo, pependi.	Posco, poposci.	Pungo, připřigi.
Tango, tětigi.	Tendo, tětendi.	Tundo, tutudi.

Exc. 2. Some, after the analogy of the second conjugation, add u to the first root of the verb; as,

```
Alo, alni, etc.
                     Consulo.
                                   Gemo.
                                                               Tremo,
                                                   Răpio,
    Colo.
                     Depso,
                                   Geno, (obs.)
                                                               Vělo.
                                                   Strěpo,
    Compesco.
                     Fremo.
                                   Mělo.
                                                   Texo.
                                                               Věmo.
Měto, messui ; and pôno, pôsui ; add su, with a change in the root.
```

Exc. 3. The following, after the analogy of the fourth conjugation, add w to the first root:—

```
Arcesso, Căpio, Lăcesso, Bădo, Tero, dropping e.
Căpesso, Incesso, Peto, Quaro, with a change of r into s.
```

Exc. 4. The following add r, with a change in the root; those in no and seo dropping n and se, and those having er before n changing it to  $r\bar{e}$  or  $r\bar{e}$ :—

```
Cresco, Pasco, Scisco, Sperno, Lino, Sero,
Nosco, Quiesco, Cerno, Sterno, Sino, to sono.
```

Exc. 5. (a.) The third root of verbs whose first root ends in d or t, and some in g, add s, instead of t, to the root, either dropping the d, t, and g, or changing them into s; as, claudo, clausum;  $d\bar{e}j\bar{e}ndo$ ,  $d\bar{e}-fensum$ ;  $c\bar{e}do$ , cessum; flecto, flexum; flgo, fixum. But the compounds of do add tt; as, perdo, perditum.

(b.) The following, also, add s, with a change of the root:—

Excello, Fallo, Pello, Spargo, Verro. Percello, Mergo, Preno, Vello,

Exc. 6. The following add t, with a change of the root; those having n, nc, nq, nqu, or nq at the end of the first root dropping n and m in the third:—

Cerno, Fingo, Géro, Séro, Sperno, Stringo, Uro, Cólo, Frango, Ruanpo, Sisto, Sternot Téro, Vinco; to which add the compounds of lingue, and verbs in see with the second root in v; the latter drop se before t; as, nosco, noit, nolum; except pasco, which drops c only.

Exc. 7. (a.) The following have it:-

Bibo, Elicio, Molo, Pono, with a change of on into os. Geno, (obs. form of gigne,) Vomo, Sino, dropping n.

(b.) The following, like verbs of the fourth conjugation, add it to the first root:—

Arcesso, Căpio, Peto, Tero, dropping &. Făcesso, Lăcesso, Quæro, with a change of r into s.

For other irregularities occurring in this conjugation, see § 172-174.

§ 172. The following list contains most of the simple verbs, both regular and irregular, in the third conjugation, with such of their compounds as require particular notice:—

Acuo, ăcui, ăcutum, d. to sharpen.
Aco, ēgi, actum, r. d. to drice. So circumăço, côço, and pêrâgo. \*\*umblgo, —, to doubt. So sătăgo. The
other components change à nto l. in
the first root: as, exigo, exegi, exactum, to drice out. \* #prodigo, -ēgi,
to syuander. See § 189, 2.

Alo, alui, altum, and later alitum, d. to nourish.

\*Ango, anxi, to strangle.

Arguo, argui, argutum, d. to concict. Arcesso, cessivi, cessitum, r. d. to call for. Pass. inf. arcessiri or arcessi.

\*Bătuo, bătui, d. to beat.

Bibo, bibi, bibitum, d. to drink.

\*Cădo, ceeddi, căsūrus, to fall. The compounds change à into 1, in the first root, and drop the reduplication; as, ocedo, -cidi, -cāsum, r. to set.

Condo, cecidi, cæsum, r. d. tocut. The compounds change æ into ī, and drop the reduplication; as, occīdo, -cīdi, -cīsum.

Cando, (obsolete,) synonymous with candeo of the second conjugation. Hence accendo, -cendi, -censum, d. to kindle. So incendo, succendo.

\*Căno, cecini, d. to sing. The compounds change ă into 1; as, \*concino, -cinui. So occino, præcino. \*accino, -. So incino, intercino, succino, recino.

\*Capesso, -ivi, r. d. to undertake.

Căpio, cepi, captum, r. d. to take. So antecăpio. The other compounds change ă into i, in the first root, and into e in the third; as, decipio, decepi, deceptum.

Carpo, carpsi, carptum, d. to pluck. The compounds change a into e; as, decerpo, decerpsi, decerptum.

Cēdo, cessi, cessum, r. to yield.
Cello, (obsolete.) excello, -cellui, -celsum, to excel. \*antēcello, —. So
præcello, rēcello. percello, -culi,
-culsum, to strike.

Cerno, crēvi, crētum, d. to decree.

\*Cerno, —, to see. Cingo, cinxi, cinctum, d. to gird.

\*Clango, —, to clang. Claudo, clausi, clausum, r. d. to shut.

Claudo, clausi, clausum, r. d. to shut. The compounds change au into ū; as, occlūdo, occlūsi, occlūsum, to shut

\*†Claudo, —, to limp.

\*†Clēpo, clepsi, rarely clēpi, to steal. Colo, colui, cultum, d. to till. †occulo, -cului, -cultum, d. to hide.

Como, compsi, comptum, to deck. \*Compesco, -pescui, to restrain.

§ 172.

Consălo, -sălui, -sultum, m. r. d. to

Coquo, coxi, coctum, m. d. to cook. Credo, credidi, creditum, r. d. to believe.

\*Cresco, crēvi, to grow. concresco,

-crēvi, -crētum. Cubo is of the first conjugation. Cf. \$165. \*accumbo, -cubui, to lie down. So the other compounds which insert m. \*Cudo, -, to forge. excudo, -cudi,

-cūsum, d. to stamp.

Căpio, căpīvi, căpîtum, d. to desire. Subj. imperf. cupiret. Lucr. 1, 72. \*Curro, cucurri, cursurus, to run.

concurro, succurro, and transcurro, drop the reduplication: the other compounds sometimes drop, and sometimes retain it; as, decurro, decurri, and decucurri, decursum. \*antěcurro, So circumcurro.

\*Dēgo, dēgi, d. to live. Dēmo, dempsi, demptum, r. d. to take away.

†Depso, depsui, depstum, to knead. Dico, dixi, dictum, u. r. d. to say.

\*Disco, didici, discitūrus, d. to learn. \*Dispesco, -, to separate.

Divido, divisi, divisum, r. d. to divide. Do is of the first conjugation. abdo, -didi, -ditum, d. to hide. So condo. indo. addo, -didi, -ditum, r. d. to So dedo, edo, prodo, reddo, †dido, -didi, -ditum, trādo, vendo. to distribute. So abdo, subdo. perdo -didi, -ditum, m. r. d. abscondo, -di

or -didi, -ditum or -sum. Duco, duxi, ductum, m. r. d. to lead. Edo, edi, esum, m. u. r. d. to eat.

Exuo, exui, exutum, d. to strip off. Emo, emi, emptum, r. d. to buy. So coemo. The other compounds change ě to 1; as, eximo, -êmi, -emptum.

Făcesso, -cessi, -cessitum, to execute. Făcio, feci, factum, m. n. r. d. to do. Compounded with a preposition, it changes a into I in the first root, and into e in the third, makes -fice in the imperative, and has a regular passive. Compounded with other words, it retains a when of this conjugation, makes fac in the imperative, and has the pas-

sire, fio, factum. See § 180. Failo, fefelli, falsum, d. to deceire. \*refello, -felli, d. to refute.

Fendo, (obsolete.) defendo, -fendi, -fen-sum, m. n. r. d. to defend. offendo, -fendi, -fensum, d. to offend.

→ Fèro, tuli, latum, r. d. to bear. See § 179. A perfect tětůli is rare. compounds are affere, attali, allatum;

anfero, abstăli, ablătum; differo, distuli, dilātum; confero, contuli, collātum; infero, intuli, illātum; offero, obtůli, oblatum; effero, extůli, elātum; suffero, sustůli, sublatum; and circum-, per-, trans-, de-, prō-, antĕ-, præf ĕro, -tŭli, -lātum. \*Fervo, vi, to boil. Cf. ferveo, 2d conj.

Fido, -, fisus, to trust. See \ 162, 18. confido, confisns sum or confidi, to rely on. diffido, diffisus sum, to

distrust.

Figo, fixi, fixum, r. rarely fictum, to fix. Findo, fidi, fissum, d. to cleave.

Fingo, fluxi, fictum, d. to feign. Flecto, flexi, flexum, r. d. to bend. \*Fligo, flixi, to dash. So confligo. affligo, -flixi, -flictum, to afflict.

infligo. proffigo is of the first conjugation. Fino, fluxi, fluxum, (fluctum, obs.) r.

to flow.

Fodio, fodi, fossum, d. to dig. Old V pres. inf. pass. fodiri: so also ef-

Frango, fregi, fractum, r. d. to break. The compounds change a into i, in the first root; as, infringo, infregi, infractum, to break in upon.

\*Frèmo, frèmui, d. to roar, howl. Frendo, -, fresum or fressum, to gnash. Frigo, frixi, frictum, rarely frixum, to

roast. \*Făgio, făgi, făgitărus, d. to flee.

\*Fulgo, -, to flash. Fundo, fudi, fusum, r. d. to pour.

\*Furo, -, to rage. \*Gemo, gemui, d. to groan.

Gero, gessi, gestum, r. d. to bear. Gigno, (obsolete geno,) genui, genitum,

r. d. to beget.

\*Glisco, —, to grow. \*Glūbo, —, to peel. deglūbo. —. -gluptum.

Gruo, (obsolete.) \*congruo, -grui, to agree. So ingruo.

Ico, ici, ictum, r. to strike.

Imbuo, imbni, imbntum, d. to imbue. \*Incesso, -cessivi or -cessi, to attack. †Induo, indui, indutum, to put on.

Jacio, jēci, jactum, d. to cast. compounds change a into 1 in the first root, and into e in the third. (\$ 163, Exc. 3); as, rejicio, rejeci, rejectum. Jungo, junxi, junctum, r. d. to join.

Lacesso, -cessivi, -cessitum, r. d. to provoke. Lăcio, (obsolete.) The compounds change

à into I; as, allicio, -lexi, -lectum, d. to allure. So illicio, pellicio. elicio, -Beni, -Heltum, to draw out.

Lædo, læsi, læsum, m. r. to hurt. The compounds change æ into i; as, illido, illisi, illisum, to dash against.

\*Lambo, lambi, to lick.

Lego, legi, lectum, r. d. to read. So allego, perlego, prælego, relego, sublego, and translego; the other compounds change è into i; as, colligo, collegi, collectum, to collect. But the following add s to form the second root; § 171, 1; diligo, -lexi, -lectum, to love. intelligo, -lexi, -lectum, u. r. d. to understand. negligo, -lexi, -lectum, r. d. to neglect.

Llngo, -, linctum, d. to lick. \*delin-

go, -, to lick up. Lino, livi or levi, litum, d. to daub. \*Linquo, līqui, d. to leave. relinquo. -liqui, -lictum, r. d. delinquo, -liqui,

-lictum. So derelinquo. Lūdo, lūsi, lūsum, m. r. to play. \*Luo, lui, luitūrus, d. to atone. abluo, -lui, -lūtum, r. d. diluo, -lui, -lū-

tum, d. So eluo.

Mando, mandi, mansum, d. to chew. Mergo, mersi, mersum, r. d. to dip. So immergo; but pres. inf. pass. immergēri, Col. 5, 9, 3.

Meto, messui, messum, d. to reap. Metno, metui, metutum, d. w fear. \*Mingo, minxi, mictum, (sup.) to make

water.

Minno, minui, minūtum, d. to lessen. Mitto, misi, missum, r. d. to send. Molo, molui, molitum, to grind. Mungo, (obsolete.) emungo, -munxi,

-munctum, to wipe the nose.

Necto, nexi, nexum, d. to knit. innecto, -nexui, -nexum. So annecto, connecto.

\*Ningo or -guo, ninxi, to snow.

Nosco, novi, notum, d. to learn. agnosco, -novi, -nitum, d. to recognize. cognosco, -uovi, -nItum, u. r. d. to know. So recognosco. \*internosco. novi, to distinguish between. præcognosco, -, præcognitum, to fore-know. \*dignosco, —. So prænosco. ignosco, -novi, -notum, d. to pardon. Nubo, nupsi, or nupta sum, nuptum,

m. r. to marry. Nuo, (obsolete,) to nod. \*abnuo, -nui, -miturus, d. to refuse. \*annuo, -nui.

So innuo, renuo. \*Olo, ŏlui, to smell.

 Pando, —, passum or pansum, to open. So expando. dispando, -, -pansum. Pago, (obs. the same as paco whence paciscor,) pepigi, pactum, to bargain:

Pango, panxi or pēgi, pactum, panctū-

rus, d. to drive in. compingo, -pēgi, -pactum. So impingo. \*oppango, -pēgi. \*depango, -. So repango, suppingo.

\*Parco, peperci rarely parsi, parsurus, to spare. Some of the compounds change a to e; as, \*comparco or com-

perco. \*imperco, -..

Pario, peperi, partum, pariturus, d. to bring forth. The compounds are of the fourth conjugation.

Pasco, pāvi, pastum, m. r. d. to feed. Pecto, -, pexum, and pectitum, d. to comb. So depecto. repecto.

\*Pēdo, pěpēdi. \*oppēdo, -Pello, pepuli, pulsum, d. to drive. Its

compounds are not reduplicated. Pendo, pependi, pensum, r. to weigh. The compounds drop the reduplication.

See § 163, Exc. 1. Pěto, pětīvi, pětītum, m. u. r. d. to ask.

Pingo, pinxi, pictum, to paint. Pinso, pinsi, pinsitum, pinsum or pis-

tum, to pound. \*Plango, planki, planctūrus, to lament. Plando, plansi, plansum, d. to clap, applaud. So applaudo. \*tcircum-plaudo, —. The other compounds

change au into ō. Plecto, -, plexum, d. to twine.

\*Pluo, plui or plūvi, to rain.

Pono, posui, (anciently posivi), posltum, r. d. to place.

\*†Porricio, -, to offer sacrifice. \*Posco, poposci, d. to demand.

Prehendo, | -di, -sum, r. d. to seize. Prendo,

Premo, pressi, pressum, r. d. to press. The compounds change e into I, in the first root; as, imprimo, impressi, impressum, to impress.

Promo, prompsi, promptum, r. d. to

bring out. \*Psallo, psalli, to play on a stringed instrument.

Pungo, păpăgi, punctum, to prick. compungo, -punxi, -punctum. So dispungo, expungo. interpungo, -, -punctum. \*repungo, -.

Quæro, quæsīvi, quæsītum, m. r. d. to The compounds change a into ī; as, requiro, requisīvi, requisītum, to seek again.

Quătio, -, quassum, to shake. The compounds change quă into cu; as, concătio, -cussi, -cussum, d. dis-

cŭtio, -cussi, -cussum, r. d. Quiesco, quiëvi, quiëtum, r. d. to rest. Rādo, rāsi, rāsum, d. to shave.

Rápio, rápui, raptum, r. d. to snatch. The compounds change a into 1 in the

first and second roots, and into e in the third; as, diripio, -ripni, -reptum, m. r. So eripio and præripio.

Rego, rexi, rectum, r. d. to rule. compounds change e into i, in the first root; as, dirigo, direxi, directum. \*pergo, (for perrigo), perrexi, r. to go forward. surgo (for surrigo), surrexi, surrectum, r. d. to rise. So porrigo (for prorigo), to stretch out. \*Repo, repsi, to creep.

Rodo, rosi, rosum, r. to gnaw. ab-, ar-, e-, ob-, præ-rodo, want the perfect.

\*Rndo, rudivi, to bray.

V Rumpo, rupi, ruptum, r. d. to break. Ruo, rui, rutmin, rnitarus, w fall. diruo, -rui, -rutum, d. Se obruo. \*corrno, -rni. So irrno.

\*Săpio, sapīvi, to be wise. The compounds change à into i; as, \*resipio, -sipivi or -sipui. \*desipio, -, to be silly.

\*† Scabo, scabi, to scratch. Scalpo, scalpsi, scalptum, to engrave. Salo or sallo, - salsum, to salt.

\*Scando, --, d. to climb. The compounds change a into e; as, ascendo, ascendi, ascensum, r. d. descendo, descendi, (anciently descended),) descensum. Scindo, seidi, (anriently seiscidi), scis-

sum, d. to cut.

Scisco, scīvi, scītum, d. to ordain. Scribo, scripsi, scriptum, r. d. to write.

Sculpo, sculpsi, sculptum, d. to carre. Sero, sevi, satum, r. d. to sow. consero, -sēvi, -situm. So insero, r., and obsěro.

Sero, -, sertum, to entwine. Its compoundshare -serni; as, assero, -serni, -sertum, r. d.

\*Serpo, serpsi, to creep.

\*Sido, sidi, to settle. Its compounds have generally sēdi, sessum, from sedeo. \*Sino, sivi, siturus, to permit. desino,

desīvi, desītum, r. § 284, R. 3, Exc. 2. Sisto, stiti, statum, to stop. \*absisto, -stiti. So the other compounds; but circumsisto wants the perfect.

Solvo, solvi, solutum, r. d. to loose. Spargo, sparsi, sparsum, r. d. to spread. The compounds change a into e; as, respergo, -spersi, -spersum; but with circum and in, a sometimes remains.

Specio, (obsolete.) The compounds change e into I, in the first root; as, aspicio, aspexi, aspectum, d. to look at. inspicio, inspexi, inspectum.

Sperno, sprëvi, sprëtum, d. to despise. \*†Spuo, spui, to spit. \*respuo, respui, d.

Stătno, stătni, stătntum, d. to place. The compounds change a into 1; as, instituo, institui, institutum, to institute.

Sterno, strāvi, strātnm, d. to strew.

\*Sternno, sternni, to sneeze. \*Sterto, -, to snore. \*†desterto, de-

stertni. \*Stinguo, -, to extinguish. distinguo, distinxi, distinctum. So exstinguo,

\*Strépo, strépui, to make a noise.

\*Strido, stridi, to creak. Stringo, strinxi, strictum, r. d. to bind or tie tight.

Strue, struxi, structum, d. to build. Sngo, suxi, suctum, to suck.

Samo, sumpsi, sumptum, r. d. to take. Sno, -, sūtum, d. to sew. So consno. dissuo. insuo, -sui, sntum. \*assno, -.

Tago, (very rare), to touch. Hence Tango, tětigi, tactum, r. d. to touch. The compounds change a into i in the first root, and drop the reduplication;

as, contingo, contigi, contactum, r. Tego, texi, tectum, r. d. to cover. \*Tenno, -, d. to despise. contemno.

-tempsi, -temptam, d. Tendo, tetendi, tentum or tensum, to stretch. The compounds drop the reduplication; as, extendo, -tendi, -tentum or -tensum. So in-, os-, and re-tendo. detendo has tensum. The other commounds have tentum.

\*†Tergo, tersi, tersum, to unpe. Tergeo, of the second conjugation has the same second and third roots.

Tero, trīvi, trītum, d. to rub.

Texo, texui, textum, d. to weave. Tingo or tinguo, tinxi, tinctum, r. d.

to moisten, tinge. \*Tollo, anciently tětňli, rarely tolli, d. to raise. The perfect and supine sustăli and sublătum from suffero take the place of the perfect and supine of toilo and sustollo. \*sustollo, -, r. to raise up, to take away. \*attollo, So extollo.

Tráho, traxi, tractum, r. d. to draw. \*Tremo, tremni, d. to tremble.

Tribuo, tribui, tribūtum, r. d. to ascribe.

Trūdo, trūsi, trūsum, to thrust.

Tundo, tütüdi, tunsum or tüsum, to The compounds drop the reduplication, and have tusum. Yet contunsum, detunsum, obtunsum, and retunsum, are also found.

Ungo, (or -guo), unxi, unctum, d. to anoint.

Uro, ussi, ustum, d. to burn.

\*Vado, -, to go. So supervado. other compounds have vāsi; as, \*evādo, evāsi, r. So pervādo; also invādo, r. d.

Věho, vexi, vectum, r. to carry. Vello, velli or vulsi, vulsum, d. to pluck. So avello, d., divello, evello, d., re-vello, revelli, revulsum. The other compounds have velli only, except intervello, which has vulsi.

\*Vergo, versi, to incline.

Verro, -, versum, d. to brush. Verto, verti, versum, r. d. to turn. See

§ 174, Note.

Vinco, vici, victum, r. d. to conquer.

\*Viso, —, d. to visit.

\*Vivo, vixi, victūrus, d. to live. \*Volo, volui, velle (for volere), to be

willing. See § 178. Volvo, volvi, volūtum, d. to roll. Vomo, vomui, vomitum, r. d. to vomit.

REMARK. Those verbs in io (and deponents in ior), of the third conjugation, which are conjugated like capio (page 115) are, capio, cupio, fácio, fódio, fúgio, jácio, pário, quátio, rápio, sápio, compounds of lácio and specio, and gradior, motior, patter, and morior: but compare morior in § 174, and orior, and potter in § 177.

# Inceptive Verbs.

§ 173. Inceptive verbs in general either want the third root, or adopt that of their primitives: (see § 187, II, 2). Of those derived from nouns and adjectives, some want the second root, and some form it by adding u to the root of the primitive.

In the following list, those verbs to which s is added, have a simple verb in use from which they are formed:-

- \*Acesco, ăcui, s. to grow sour.
- \*Ægresco, to grow sick. \*Albesco, -, s. to grow white.
- \*Alesco, -, s. to grow. coalesco, -alui, -alitum, to grow together.

\*Ardesco, arsi, s. to take fire.

- \*Aresco, -, s. to grow dry. \*exaresco, co, -arui. So inaresco, peraresco.
- \*Augesco, auxi, s. to increase.
- \*Calesco, calui, s. to grow warm.
- \*Calvesco, -, s. to become bald.
- \*Candesco, candui, s. to grow white.
- \*Cānesco, cānui, s. to become hoary.
- \*Claresco, clarui, s. to become bright.
- \*Condormisco, -dormivi, s. to go to
- \*Conficesco, -ticui, to become silent. \*Crebresco, crebui and crebrui, to in-
- \*Crüdesco, crüdui, to become violent.
- \*Ditesco, -, to grow rich.
- \*Dulcesco, —, to grow sweet. \*Dūresco, dūrui, to grow hard.
- \*Evilesco, evilui, to become worthless.
- \*Extimesco, -timui, to feur greatly.
- \*Fătisco, —, to gape. \*Flaccesco, flaccui, s. to wilt.
- \*Fervesco, ferbui, s. to grow hot. \*Floresco, florui, s. to begin to flourish.
- \*Fracesco, fracui, to grow rancid. \*Frigesco, -, s. to grow cold. \*per
  - frigesco, -frixi. So refrigesco.

- \*Frondesco, -, s. to put forth leaves. \*Fruticesco, -, to put forth shoots.
- \*Gelasco, -, s. to freeze. So \*cougelasco, s. to congeal
- \*Gemisco, -, s. to begin to sigh.
- \*Gemmasco, —, to begin to but. \*Generasco, -, s. to be produced.
- \*Grandesco, —, to grow large.
- \*Gravesco, —, to grow heavy.
- \*Hæresco, -, s. to adhere. \*Hebesco, -, s. to grow dull.
- \*Horresco, horrui, s. to grow rough.
- \*Humesco, -, s. to grow moist.
- \*Ignesco, -, to become inflamed.
- \*Indolesco, -dolui, d. to be grieved.
- \*Insolesco, -, to become haughty.
- \*Integrasco, —, to be renewed. \*Juvenesco, —, to grow young.
- \*Languesco, langui, s. to grow languid.
- \*Lapidesco, —, to become stone.
  \*Latesco, —, to grow broad.
  \*Latesco, to be concealed. s. \*delitesco,
- -litui; \*oblitesco, -litui.
- \*Lentesco, —, to become soft.
  \*Liquesco, —, s. to become liquid.
  \*deliquesco, -Ncui.
- \*Lucesco, —, s. to grow light, to dawn. \*Lutesco, —, s. to become muddy.
- \*Macesco, —, s. } to grow lean.
- \*remacresco, -macrui.
- \*Mădesco, mădui, s. to grow moist. 12\*

- \*Marcesco, -, s. to pine meay. \*Mătūresco, mătūrui, to ripen.
- \*Miseresco, miserui, s. to pity. \*Mitesco, -, to grow mild.
- \*Mollesco, —, to grow soft. \*Mutesco, —, to become dumb.
- \*obmūtesco, obmūtui.
- \*Nigresco, nigrui, s. to grow black. \*Nitesco, nitui, s. to grow bright.
- \*Notesco, notui, to become known. \*Obbrūtesco, —, to become brutish. \*Obdormisco, —, s. to fall asleep.
- \*Obsurdesco, -surdni, to grow deaf.
- \*Occallesco, -callui, to become callous. \*Olesco, (scarcely used.) \*Abolesco, -ŏlēvi, s. to ceasc. adolesco, -ŏlēvi,
- -ultum, s. to grow up. exŏlesco, -ŏlēvi, -ŏlētum, to grow out of date. So obsolesco. inolesco, -olevi, -olitum, d. to grow in or on.
- \*Pallesco, pallui, s. to grow pale. \*Pătesco, pătni, s. to be opened.
- \*Pavesco, pavi, s. to grow fearful.
- \*Pertimesco, -timui, d. to fear greatly.

- \*Pinguesco, —, to grow fat.

  \*Pūbesco, —, to grow fat.

  \*Pūbesco, —, to become a boy.

  \*Pūtesco, —, s. \ to become putrid.

  \*Rāresco, —, to become thin.
- \*Resipisco, sipui, s. to recover one's senses. \*Rigesco, rigui, s. to grow cold.
- \*Rubesco, rubui, s. to grow red. \*erubesco, -rŭbui, d.

- \*Sanesco, -, to become sound. \*consanesco, -sanui.
- \*Sěnesco, sěnui, s. d. to grow old. So consenesco.
- \*Sentisco, —, s. to perceire. \*Siccesco, —, to become dry.
- \*Silesco, silui, s. to grow silent.
- \*Solidesco, -, to become solid. \*Sordesco, sordui, s. to become filthy.
- \*Splendesco, splendui, s. to become bright.
- \*Spumesco, -, to begin to foam.
- \*Sterilesco, -, to become barren. \*Stupesco, stupni, s. to become astonished.
- Suesco, suëvi, suëtum, s. to become accustomed.
- \*Tābesco, tābni, s. to waste away. \*Teneresco and -asco, -, to become
- tender.
- \*Tépesco, těpni, s. to grow warm. \*Torpesco, torpui, s. to grow torpid.
- \*Tremisco, --, s. to begin to tremble. \*Tunesco, tumui, s. to begin to swell.
- \*Turgesco, -, s. } "Vesco, -, to become moist.
- \*Válesco, -, s. to become strong.
- \*Vānesco, -, to vanish. \*evānesco. ēvānui.
- \*Větěrasco, větěrāvi, to grow old. \*Viresco, virui, s. to grow green.
- \*Vivesco, vixi, s. to come to life. \*rěvivisco, -vixi.

# § 174. Deponent Verbs of the Third Conjugation.

Apiscor, aptus, to get. The compounds change a into I in the first root, and into e in the third; as, adipiscor, adeptus. So indipiscor. Expergiscor, experrectus, to awake.

\*Fatiscor, to gape or crack open. compounds change à into è; as, defètiscor, -fessus.

Fruor, fruitus or fructus, fruitūrus, d. to enjoy. Fungor, functus, r. d. to perform.

Gradior, gressus, to walk. The com-pounds change a into e; as, aggredior, aggressus, r. d. Inf. pres. aggredi and aggredīri; so, progredi and progredīri; and pres. ind. egredītur, Plant. \*Irascor. to be angry.

Labor, lapsus, r. to full.

\*Liquor, to melt, flow.

Loquor, locutus, r. d. to speak. Miniscor, (obsolete.) communiscor, commentus, p. to invent. \*reminiscor, to remember. Morior. (mori, rarely moriri,) mortuus, moriturus, d. to die. So emoriri, Plaut. for emori. Nauciscor, nactus or nanctus to obtain.

Nascor, nătus, nascitūrus, u. to be born. Nitor, nixus or nisus, nisūrus, to lean upon. Obliviscor, oblitus, d. p. to forget.

Paciscor, pactus, d. to bargain. So depaciscor.

Pătior, passus, r. d. to suffer. perpetior, -pessus.

From plecto, to twine, come, amplector, amplexus, d. p. complector, complexus, p. So circumplector. Proficiscor, profectus, r. to depart.

Queror, questus, m. u. d. to complain. \*Ringor, to snarl. Sequor, secutus, r. d. to follow.

Tuor, tutus, to protect.

\*Vescor, d. to eat. Ulciscor, ultus, m. d. p. to avenge. Utor, ūsus, r. d. to use.

NOTE. Dévertor, prævertor, révertor, compounds of verto, are used as deponents in the present and imperfect tenses; revertor also, sometimes, in the perfect.

## FOURTH CONJUGATION.

§ 175. Verbs of the fourth conjugation regularly form their second root in iv, and their third in it; as, audio, audivi, auditum.

The following list contains most regular verbs of this conjugation :--

Audio, -īvi or -ii, m. u. r. d. to hear. \*Cio, civi, to excite. Ct. cieo, \ 168. Condio, -īvi or -ii, to season. Custodio, -īvi or -ii, d. to guard. \*Dormio, -īvi or -ii, m. r. d. to sleep. Erudio, -īvi or -ii, d. to instruct. Expědio, -īvi or -ii, d. to disentangle. Finio, -īvi or -ii, r. d. to finish. \*Gestio, -ivi or -ii, to exult; desire. Impedio, -ivi or -ii, r. d. to entangle. Insanio, -īvi or -ii, to be mad. Irretio, -īvi or ii, to ensnare. Lenio, -ivi or ii, d. to mitigate. Mollio, -īvi or -ii, d. to soften.

\*Mūgio, -īvi or -ii, to bellow. Mūnio, -īvi or -ii, r. d. to fortify. Mūtio, -īvi, to mutter. Nūtrio, -īvi or -ii, d. to nourish. Partio, -īvi or -ii, r. to divide. Polio, -īvi, d. to polish. Pūnio, -īvi or -ii, d. to punish. Redimio, -ivi, to crown. Scio, -Ivi, u. r. to know. Servio, -īvi or -ii, m. r. d. to serve. Sopio, -ivi or -ii, to lull asleep. Stabilio, -īvi or -ii, to establish. Tinnio, -ivi or -ii, r. to tinkle. Vestio, -īvi or -ii, to clothe.

§ 176. The following list contains those verbs of the fourth conjugation which form their second and third roots irregularly, and those which want either or both of them.

REMARK. The principal irregularity in verbs of the fourth conjugation arises from following the analogy of those verbs of the third conjugation whose first root ends in a consonant; as, sepio, sepsi, septum. A few become irregular by syncope; as, venio, veni, ventum.

Amicio, -ui or -xi, amictum, d. to clothe. \*Balbūtio, -, to stammer.

Bullio, ii, ītum, to bubble.

\*Cæcūtio, -, to be dim-sighted.

\*Cambio, -, to exchange.

\*Dementio, —, to be mad.
Effutio, —, to babble.
Eo, ivi or ii, itum, r. d. to go. The compounds have only it in the perfect, except obeo, præeo, and subeo, which have Ivi or ii. All the compounds want the supine and perfect participles, except adeo, ambio, meo, obeo, præterco, subco, circumeo or circueo, rědeo, transeo, and \*†věneo, věnii, r. (from věnum eo), to be sold.

Farcio, farsi, fartum or farctum, to The compounds generally change a to e; as, refercio, -fersi, -fertum, but con- and ef-, -farcio and -fercio.

Fastīdio, -ii, -ītum, d. to loathe.

\*Ferio, -, d. to strike.

\*Fěrōcio, —, to be fierce. Fulcio, fulsi, fultum, d. to prop up.

\*Gannio, —, to yelp, bark.
\*Glōcio, —, to cluck as a hen.
\*Glūtio, īvi, or glūtii, to swallow.

Grandio, -, to make great. \*Grunnio, grunnii, to grunt.

Haurio, hausi, rar, haurii, haustum, rar. hausītum, haustūrus, hausūrus, n. d. to draw.

\*Hinnio, —, to neigh. \*Ineptio, —, to trifle.

\*Lascivio, lascivii, to be wanton. \*Ligūrio, ligūrii, to feed delicately.

\*Lippio, -, r. to be blear-eyed. \*Obedio, obedii, r. to obey.

Pario is of the third conjugation, but its compounds are of the fourth, changing ă to č; as, aperio, aperui, apertum, r. d. to open. So operio, d. comperio, compěri, compertum, rarely dep. comperior, to find out. So reperio,

Păvio, —, păvitum, to beat.

\*Prurio, —, to itch.
Queo, quivi or quii, quitum, to be able.
So \*nêqueo.

\*Raucio, —, r. to be hoarse.

\*Rigio, —, to roar as a lion.
Savio, savii, itum, r. to rage.

\*Săţio, —, to perceire keenly.

\*Sălio, sânii or sâlii, to leap. The
compounds change ă into 1; as, \*Robsilio, —. So circumslio. \*assilio, -ui.
So exsilio, risilio. \*desilio, -ui or -ii.
So exsilio, risilio, subsilio. \*transilio, -ui or -ivi, d. So prisilio.
Sălio, —, Itum, r. d. to salt.
Sancio, sanxi, sanctuum or sanctum, d.

to ratify, sanction.

Sarcio, sarsi, sartum, d. to patch. Sarrio, -īvi or -ui, sarrītum, d. to weed, hoe.

hoe.

\*Scătūrio, —, to gush out.
Sentio, sensi, sensum, r. to feel.
Sepēlio, sepēlivi or -ii, rar. sepēli, se

pultum, r. d. to bury.
Splo, sepsi, septum, d. to hedge in.
\*Singultio, —, to sob, hiccup.
\*Stito, stiti, to thirst.
Sufflo, -ii, -itum, d. to fumigate.
\*Tussio, —, to cough.

\*Vāgio, vāgii, to cry. Věnio, vēni, ventum, r. to come. Vincio, vinxi, vinctum, r. d. to bind.

Note. Desiderative verbs want both the second and third roots, except those three;—\*\*esūrio,—, esūrius, r. to desire to ent; \*\*nnptūrio, -ivi, to desire to marry; \*\*partūrio, -ivi, to be in travail. See § 187, II. 3.

# § 177. Deponent Verbs of the Fourth Conjugation.

Assentior, assensus, r. d. p. to assent.
Blandior, blanditus, to flutter.
Largior, largitus, p. to give, bestow.
Mentior, mentitus, r. p. to lie.
Metior, mensus or metitus, d. p. to
measure.
Molior, möltus, d. to strive, toil.
Ordior orsus, d. p. to begap.

Mölior, mölitus, d. to strive, toil.
Ordior, orsus, d. p. to begin.
Orior, ortus, öritürus, d. to spring up.
Except in the present infinitive, this
verb seems to be of the third conjugation.

Pěrior, (obs. whence pěritus.) expěrior, expertus, r. d. to try. oppěrior, oppertus or oppěritus, d. to wait for. Partior, partitus, d. to divide.

Potior, potitius, r. d. to obtain, enjoy.

In the poets the present indicative and imperfect subjunctive are sometimes of the third conjugation.

Sortior, sortitus, r. to cast lots.

# IRREGULAR VERBS.

§ 178. Irregular verbs are such as deviate from the common forms in some of the parts derived from the first root.

They are sum, vŏlo, fĕro, ĕdo, fīo, eo, queo, and their compounds.

Sum and its compounds have already been conjugated. See § 153. In the conjugation of the rest, the parts which are irregular are fully exhibited, but a synopsis only, of the other parts is, in general, given. Some parts of volo and of its compounds are wanting.

Vèlo is irregular only in the present of the indicative and infinitive, and in the present and imperfect of the subjunctive.

REMARK. It is made irregular partly by syncope, and partly by a change in the vowel of the root. In the present infinitive also and in the imperfect subjunctive, after è was dropped, r following l was changed into l; as, relère (velte) relle; velèrem (velrem) vellem.

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Indic.
vŏ'-lŏ, vel'-lĕ, vŏl'-u-i, to be willing, to wish.

# INDICATIVE.

Pres. S. vŏ'-lō, vīs, vult;
P. vŏ'-ŭ-mŭs, vul'-tīs, vŏ'-lunt.

P. vol'-ŭ-mus, vul'-tis, vo'-lun Imperf. vo-lē'-bam, vo-lē'-bas, etc.

Fut. vo-le-ban, vo-le-ban, vo-le-ban, vo-le-ban, vo-les, etc.

Perf. vŏl'-u-i. Plup. vŏ-lu'-ĕ-ram.

Fut. perf. vŏ-lu'-ĕ-rð.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. S. vě'-lim, vě'-lis, vě'-lit;

P. vě-lī'-mus, vě-lī'-tis, vě'-lint.

Imperf. S. vel'-lem, vel'-les, vel'-let;

Perf. vŏ-lu'-ĕ-rim. Plup. vŏl-u-is'-sem.

P. vel-lef'-mus, vel-lef'-tis, vel'-lent.

PARTICIPLE.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. vel'-lĕ.

Perf. vŏl-u-is'-sĕ.

Pres. vŏ'-lens.

Note. Volt and roltis, for vult and vultis, and vin', for visne are found in Plantus and other ancient authors.

2.  $N\bar{o}lo$  is compounded of the obsolete  $n\bar{e}$  (for non) and  $v\bar{o}lo$ . The v of  $v\bar{o}lo$  after  $n\bar{e}$  is dropped, and the vowels ( $\bar{e}$   $\bar{o}$ ) are contracted into  $\bar{o}$ .

Pres. Indic.

Pres. Infin. nol'-lĕ. Perf. Indic.

nol'-u-i, to be unwilling.

## INDICATIVE.

Pres. S. nō'-lŏ, non'-vīs, non'-vult; P. nōl'-ŭ-mŭs, non-vul'-tīs, nō'-lunt. Imperf. nō-lē'-bam, -bās, -bǎt, etc.

Fut. no'-lam, -les, -let, etc.

Perf. nöl'-u-ī. Plup. nō-lu'-ĕ-ram. Fut. perf. nō-lu'-ĕ-rŏ.

# SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. S. no'-lim, no'-lis, no'-lit;

P. nō-lī'-mūs, nō-lī'-tīs, nō'-lint.

Imperf. S. nol'-lem, nol'-lēs, nol'-lèt;

P. nol-le'-mus. nol-le'-tis. nol'-lent.

Perf. nō-lu'-ĕ-rim. Plup. nōl-u-is'-sem.

# IMPERATIVE.

Present.

Future.

Sing. 2.  $n\bar{o}'$ -lī; Plur.  $n\bar{o}$ -lī-tě. Sing. 2.  $n\bar{o}$ -lī-t $\bar{o}'$ , Plur.  $n\bar{o}$ -lī-t $\bar{o}'$ -tě, 3.  $n\bar{o}$ -lǐ-t $\bar{o}'$ ;  $n\bar{o}$ -lur'-t $\bar{o}$ .

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. nol'-lě. Perf. nol-u-is'-sě. Pres. nö'-lens.

Note. In non-vis, non-vult, etc. of the present, non takes the place of ne, but nëvis and nëvolt also occur in Plantus.

3.  $M\,\bar{a}lo$  is compounded of  $m\bar{a}gis$  and  $r\bar{o}lo$ . In composition  $m\bar{a}gis$  drops its final syllable, and  $v\bar{o}lo$  its v. The vowels  $(\bar{a}\ \bar{o})$  are then contracted into  $\bar{a}$ .

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Indic.
mā'-lŏ, mal'-lĕ, māl'-u-i, to prefer.

## INDICATIVE.

 $Pres. S. m \bar{a}' - l \bar{b}, m \bar{a}' - v \bar{i}s, m \bar{a}' - v \bar{i}t;$   $P. m \bar{a}l' - \bar{u} - m \bar{u}s, m \bar{a}' - v \bar{u}t;$   $Perf. m \bar{a}l' - u - \bar{l}.$   $Perf. m \bar{a}l' - u - \bar{l}.$   $m \bar{a}l' - u - \bar{l}.$ 

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. S. mā'-lim, mā'-līs, mā'-līt; Perf. mā-lu'-ĕ-rim.
P. mā-li'-mūs, māl-li-tīts, mā'-lītt. Plup. māl-u-is'-sem.
Imperf. S. mal'-lem, mal'-lēt, mal'-lēt, P. mal-lē'-mūs, mal-lē'-tīs, mal'-lent.

## INFINITIVE.

Pres. mal'-lě. Perf. māl-u-is'-sě.

NOTE. Māvölo, māvölunt; māvölet; māvēlim, māvēlis, māvēlit; and māvellem; for mālo, mālunt, etc., occur in Plautus.

§ 179. Fĕro is irregular in two respects:—1. Its second and third roots are not derived from the first, but from otherwise obsolete verbs, viz.  $t\bar{u}lo$  for tollo, and tlao, sup.  $tl\bar{u}tum$ , by aphæresis,  $l\bar{u}tum$ :—2. In the present infinitive active, in the imperfect subjunctive, and in certain parts of the present indicative and imperative, of both voices, the connecting vowel is omitted. In the present infinitive passive, r is doubled.

# ACTIVE VOICE. PASSIVE VOICE.

Pres. Indic. fe-rō, (to be borne.)
Pres. Indic. fe-rō,
Pres. Indic. fe-rō, (to be borne.)

# INDICATIVE.

## Present.

S. fĕ'-rŏ, fers, fert;
P. fēr'-I-mŭs, fer'-tīs, fĕ'-runt.

fĕ'-rŏr, fer'-rīs or -rĕ, fer'-tŭr;
fĕ'-i-mŭr, fĕ-rim'-i-nī, fĕ-run'-tŭr.

Imperf. fě-rē'-bam. Imperf. fě-rē'-băr. Fut. fě'-ram, -rēs, etc. Fut. fe'-rar, -re'-ris or -re'-re, etc. Perf. tŭ'-lī. Perf. lā'-tūs sum or fu'-ī. tŭ'lĕ-ram. Plup. la'-tus e'-ram or fu'-e-ram. Plun. Fut. perf. tŭ'-lĕ-rŏ Fut. perf. la'-tus e'-ro or fu -e-ro.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

fě'-ram, -ras, etc. Pres. fě'-răr, -rā'-ris or -rā'-rě, etc. Imperf. fer'-rem, -res, etc. Imperf. fer'-rer, -re'-ris, etc.

Perf. tŭ'-le-rim. Perf. la'-tus sim or fu'-ĕ-rim.

Plup. tŭ-lis'-sem. Plup. lā'-tus es'-sem or fu-is'-sem.

# IMPERATIVE.

Pres. S. fer, P. fer'-tĕ. Pres. S. fer'-re, P. fe-rim'-i-ni.

Fut. S. fer'-to, P. fer-to'-te, fer'-to; fe-run'-to. Fut. S. fer'-tor, P. (fe-rem'-i-ni.) fě-run'-tor. fer tŏr.

## INFINITIVE.

Pres. fer'-re. Pres. fer'-ri.

Perf. lā'-tus es'-sĕ or fu-is'-sĕ. Perf. tŭ-lis'-sĕ.

Fut. lā-tū'-rūs es'-sē. Fut. lā'-tum i'-rī.

## PARTICIPLES.

Pres. fĕ'-rens.

Perf. lā'-tŭs. Fut. la-tū'-rūs. Fut. fe-ren'-dus.

## GERUND.

fĕ-ren'-di, etc.

SUPINES.

Former, 15/-tum. Latter. la'-tū.

Note. In the comic writers the following reduplicated forms are found in parts derived from the second root, viz. tetüli, tetuleti, tetülit, tetulërunt; tetulëro, tetulërit; tetulissem, and tetulisse.

§ 180. Fig., 'to become,' is properly a neuter verb of the third conjugation, having only the parts derived from the first root; but it is used also as a passive of facio, from which it takes those parts of the passive which are derived from the third root, together with the participle in dus. The infinitive present has been changed from the regular form fiere to fieri.

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Part.

fī'-ŏ, fí'-ĕ-rī, fac'-tus, to be made or to become.

## INDICATIVE.

Pres. S. fi'-o, fis, fit; Perf. fac'-tŭs sum or fu'-i. P. fi-mus, fi'-tis, fi'-unt. Plup. fac'-tus ĕ'-ram or fu'-ĕ-ram. Imperf. fi-ē'-bam, fi-ē'-bās, etc. Ful. perf. fac'-tus è'-rō or fu'-ĕ-rō. Fut. fi'-am, fi'-es, etc.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. fī'-am, fī'-ās, etc.

Imp. fī'-ē-rem, -ē'-rēs, etc.

Perf. fae'-tūs sim or fu'-ē-rim.

Plup. fae'-tūs se'-sem or fu-is'-sem.

## IMPERATIVE.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. Sing. fī; Plur. fī'-tě.

Pres. f'í-ĕ-rì.
Perf. fac'-tŭs es'-sĕ or fu-is'-sĕ.
Fut. fac'-tum ī'-rī.

PARTICIPLES.

SUPINE. Latter. fac'-tū.

Perf. fac'-tŭs. Fut. fă-ci-en'-dŭs.

NOTE. The compounds of facio which retain a, have also f io in the passive; as, calefacio, to warm; passive, calef fo; but those which change a into i form the passive regularly. (Cf. facio in the list, § 172.) Yet confit, defit, and infit, occur. See § 183, 12, 13, 14.

§ 181. Edo, to eat, is conjugated regularly as a verb of the third conjugation; but in the present of the indicative, imperative, and infinitive moods, and in the imperfect of the subjunctive, it has also forms similar to those of the corresponding tenses of sum:—Thus.

## INDICATIVE.

Present.

S. ĕ'-dŏ, ĕ'-dis, ĕ'-dit,
(or ēs, est);
P. ĕd'-i-mŭs, ĕd'-i-tis, ĕ'-dunt.
(or es'-tis).

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

Imperfect.

S. ŏd'-ĕ-rem, ŏd'-ĕ-rēs, ŏd'-ĕ-rēt, (or es-sem, es'-sōs, es'-sōt); P. ŏd-ĕ-rē'-mūs, ŏd-ĕ-rē'-tīs, ŏd'-ĕ-rent, or es-sō'-mūs, es-sō'-tīs, es'-sent).

## IMPERATIVE.

Pres, S. ě'-dě, P. ěd'-ī-tě,

(or ēs; Fut. S. ěd'-I-tő, (or es'-tő, es-tō'-tě, ě-dun'-tő.

## INFINITIVE.

Pres. ĕd'-ĕ-rĕ, (or es'-sĕ).

## PASSIVE.

Pres. ĕd'-I-tŭr, (or es'-tŭr). Imperf. ĕd-ĕ-rē'-tŭr, (or es-sē'-tŭr).

Note. (a.) In the present subjunctive,  $\dot{e}dim$ ,  $\dot{e}dis$ , etc., are found, for  $\dot{e}dam$ ,  $\dot{e}d\ddot{a}s$ , etc.

(b.) In the compounds of ēdo, also, forms resembling those of sum occur. Ambēdo has the participles ambens and ambēsus; comeido has comēsus, comesūrus, and rarely comestus; and acēco and execute actions and execute.

§ 182. Eo is irregular in the parts which, in other verbs are formed from the first root, except the imperfect subjunctive and the present infinitive. In these, and in the parts formed from the second and third roots, it is a regular verb of the fourth conjugation.

Note. Ee has no first root, and the parts usually derived from that root, consist, in this verb, of terminations only.

## INDICATIVE.

Pres. S. e'-5, is, it;
P. i'-mūs, i'-tis, e'-unt.

| P. i'-mūs, i'-tis, e'-unt.
| Perf. i'-bī, i'-bīs, i'-bīt, etc.
| Perf. i'-ti, i-vis'-ti, i'-vit, etc.
| Plup. iv'-c-ram, iv'-c-rās, etc.
| Put. perf. iv'-c-rō, iv'-c-rās, etc.

# SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. e'-am, e'-ās, e'-āt, etc. Perf. īv'-ŏ-rīm, īv'-ŏ-rīs, etc. Imperf. ī'-rem, ī'-rēs, i'-rēt, etc. Plup. ī-vis'-sem, ī-vis'-sēs, etc.

INFINITIVE.

## IMPERATIVE.

	S. ī, I 2. ī'-tŏ, 3. ī'-tŏ;	?. ī'-tē. ī-tō'-tĕ, e-un'-tŏ.	ī'-rĕ. ĭ-vis'-sĕ. ĭ-tū'-rús	es'-sĕ.
7	ARTICIPE	FS	GERUNI	₹.

PARTICIPLES. GERUND.

Pres. i'-ens, (yen. e-un'-tis.) e-un'-dī,

Fut. i-tū'-rūs, z, um. e-un'-dō, etc.

REMARK 1. In some of the compounds the forms eam, ies, iet occur, though rarely, in the future; as, revieam, redies, abiet, exiet, prodient. Istis, issem, and issee, are formed by contraction for icists, bissem, and bisses. See § 102.

Rem. 2. In the passive voice are found the infinitive iri, and the third persons singular iter, ibitur, ibitur, itsu est, etc., eiter, iritur, euclum est, etc., which are used impersonally. See § 184, 2, (a.)

REM. 3. The compounds of  $e_{i}$  including wine, are conjugated like the simple verb, but most of them have  $\hat{u}$  in the perfect rather than  $i\hat{v}$ . See under  $e_{i}$  in § 178. Adica, antece, inco, practice, saidea, and transec, being used actively, are found in the passive voice. Initiate occurs as a future passive of inco. Ambio is regular, like and/o, but has either ambibat or ambibat.

Note. Queo, I can, and requeo, I cannot, are conjugated like eo, but they want the imperative mood and the gerund, and their participles rarely occur. They are sometimes found in the passive voice, before an infinitive passive.

## DEFECTIVE VERBS.

§ 183. (1.) Defective verbs are those which are not used in certain tenses, numbers, or persons.

REMARE. There are many verbs which are not found in all the tenses, numbers, and persons, exhibited in the paradigms. Some, not originally defective, are accounted so, because they do not occur in the classics now extant. Others are in their nature defective. Thus, the first and second persons of the passive voice must be wanting in many verbs, from the nature of their signification.

- (2.) The following list contains such verbs as are remarkable for wanting many of their parts:-
- 1. Odi, I hate.
- 2. Copi, I have begun. 3. Měmini, I remember.
- 4. Aio, 5. Inquam, I say.
- 6. Fāri, to speak. 7. Quæso, I pray.
- 8. Ave, hail, or 9. Salve, farewell. 10. Apage, begone.
- 11. Cědo, tell, or give me. 12. Confit, it is done.
  - 13. Defit, it is wanting. 14. Infit, he begins. 15. Ovat, he rejoices.
- 1. Odi, capi, and memini are used chiefly in the perfect and in the other parts formed from the second root, and are thence called preteritive verbs. Odi has also a deponent form in the perfect: Thus,

IND. perf. o'-di or o'-sus sum; plup. od'-e-ram; fut. perf. od'-e-ro. SUBJ. perf. od'-e-rim; plup. o-dis'-sem.

INF. perf. o-dis'-se; fut. o-su'-rum es'-se.

PART. fut. ō-sū'-rus; perf. ō'-sus.

NOTE 1. Exosus and perosus, like osus, are used actively. Odirit, for odit, occurs, M. Anton. in Cic. Phil. 13, 19: and odiendi in Appuleius.

2. Ind. perf. ce'-pi; plup. cep'-ĕ-ram; fut. perf. cep'-ĕ-ro. Subj. perf. cop'-e-rim; plup. co-pis'-sem. Inf. perf. co-pis'-se; fut. cop-th'-rum es'-se.

PART. fut. coep-tu'-rus; perf. coep'-tus.

- Note 2. In Plantus are found a present, capio, present subjunctive, capiam, and infinitive, capere. Before an infinitive passive, captus est, etc., rather than capi, etc., are commonly used.
  - 3. Ind. perf. měm'-i-ni; plup. mě-min'-ě-ram; fut. perf. mě-min'-ě-ro. Subj. perf. me-min'-e-rim; plup. mem-i-nis'-sem.

INF. perf. mem-1-nis'-se.

IMPERAT. 2 pers. S. më-men'-to; P. mëm-en-tô'-tě.

- Note 3. Odi and memini have, in the perfect, the sense of the present, and, in the pluperfect and future perfect, the sense of the imperfect and future; as, fugiet atque odérit. Cic. In this respect, nori, I know, the perfect of nosco, to learn, and consuevi, I am wont, the perfect of consuesco, I accustom myself, agree with odi and memini.
- 4. IND. pres. ai'-o. \* a'-is. a'-it; ---, ai'-unt. \* - imp. ai-ē'-bam, ai-ē'-bās, ai-ē'-bāt; ai-ē'-bā'-mūs, ai-ē-bā'-tīs, ai-ē'-bant. Subj. pres .---, ai'-ās, ai'-āt; ----, ai'-ant. IMPERAT. pres. a'-ī. Part. pres. ai'-ens.

Note 4. Ais with ne is contracted to ain' like riden', abin'; for ridesne, abisne. The comic writers use the imperfect aibas, aibat and aibant, which are dissyllabic.

5. Inc. pres. in'-quam, in'-quis, in'-quit; in'-qui-mus, in'-qui-tis, in'-qui-unt. | Male |

IMPERAT. in'-que, in'-qui-to.

-, ---, fā'-tŭr; fut. fā'-bŏr, ---, fāb'-ĭ-tŭr. 6. IND. pres. ---- perf. fatus est; plup. fatus eram. IMPERAT. fa'-re. PART. pres. fans; perf. fa'-tus; fut. fan'-dus. INFIN. pres. fa'-rī or fa'-ri-er. Gerund. gen. fan'-dī; abl. fan'-dō. SUPINE, fa'-tū.

Pronounced a'-yo, a'-yunt, etc., wherever the diphthong ai is followed by a vowel. See § 9, 1.

- Interfari has the forms interfatur, interfate est, interfari, interfane, and interfatus.—Iffari has effohr, effabre, effatus est, effat sunt; imperute fare; effat, effatus, effatus, effatus, effatus, effatus, rergatur-truefari occurs in the following forms, proglatur, prefatur; prefatur-truefatur; prefatur-truefatus; prefatus, prefatu
- 7. Ind. pres. quæ'-so, —, quæ'-sit; quæs'-ŭ-mŭs, —, —.
  Inf. pres. quæs'-č-rč.
- Imperat. ă'-vē, ă-vē'-tē; ă-vē'-to. Inf. ă-vē'-rē. Note. Acēre and salvēre are often used with jübeo.
- Ind. pres. sal'-ve-o; fut. sal-vē'-bīs. Inf. pres. sal-vē'-rē. Imperat. sal'-vē, sal-vē'-tē; sal-vē'-to.
- 10. IMPERAT. ap'-a-ge. So age with a subject either singular or plural.
- 11. IMPERAT. sing. ce'-do; pl. cet'-te for ced'-t-te. Hence cedodum.
- Ind. pres. con'-fit; fut. con-fi'-et.
   Subj. pres. con-fi'-at; imperf. con-fi'-ĕ-rĕt. Inf. pres. con-fi'-ĕ-rɨ.
- IND. pres. de'.fit; pl. de-fi'-unt; fut. de-fi'-ët. Subj. pres. de-fi'-ët. INF. pres. de-fi'-ë-ri. So ef-fi'-ë-ri, and in-ter-fi'-et. Plaut.; and in-ter-fi'-at. Lucr.
- 14. IND. pres. in'-fit; pl. in-fi'-unt.
- Ind. pres. ŏ'-văt. Subj. pres. ŏ'-vět; imperf. ŏ-vă'-rět. Part. pres. ŏ'-vans; perf. ō-vä'-tüs; fut. ŏv-ā-tū'-rūs. Gerund, ŏ-van'-dt.

REMARK 1. Among defective verbs are sometimes, also, included the following:—Fiven, force, etc., f. vd. (see § 154, R. 3.). Ausim, ausis, ausit, ausint. Fazo and fuzim, fazis, faxit; faximus, faxitis, faxint. Faxem. The form in o is an old future perfect; that in im a perfect, and that in em a pluperfect subjunctive. See § 162, 7, (c.), and 9.

REM. 2. In the present tense, the first person singular, füro, to be mad, and der and der, from do, to give, are not used. So in the imperative sci, cupe and polle, from scio, cupio, and polleo, do not occur.

REM. 3. A few words, sometimes classed with defectives, are formed by contraction from a verb and the conjunction si; as, sis for si vis, sullis for si culis, soldes for si audies (for cudies.)

# IMPERSONAL VERBS.

- § 184. (a.) Impersonal verbs are those which are used only in the third person singular, and do not admit of a personal subject.
- (b.) The subject of an impersonal verb in the active voice is, for the most part, either an infinitive, or an infinitive or subjunctive clause; but in English the neater pronoun, it, commonly stands before the verb, and represents such clause; as, me delectat scribere, it delights me to write. Sometimes an accusative depending on an impersonal verb takes, in English, the place of a subject; as, me misricet tai, I pity thee.
- Impersonal verbs in the active voice are conjugated in the several conjugations like delectat, it delights; decet, it becomes; contingit, it happens; event, it happens; event, it happens; event.

	1st Conj.	2d Conj.	31 Conj.	4th Conj.
Ind. Pres.	delectat,	dècet,	contingit,	evenit, eveniebat, eveniet, evenit, evenerat, evenerit.
Imp.	delectābat,	decēbat,	contingübat,	
Fut.	delectābit,	decēbit,	continget,	
Perf.	delectāvit,	decuit,	contigit,	
Plup.	delectavērat,	decui rat,	contigerat,	
Fut. perf.	delectavērit.	decui rit.	contigerat,	
Sub. Pres.	delectet,	deceat,	contingat,	eveniat,
Imp.	delectāret,	deceret,	contingeret,	evenīret,
Perf.	delectavērit,	decuerit,	contigerit,	evenērit,
Plup.	delectavisset.	decuisset.	contigueset.	evenisset.
Inf. Pres.	delectāre,	decēre,	contingère,	evenire,
Perf.	delectavisse.	decuisse.	contigisse.	evenisse.

(a.) Most neuter and many active verbs may be used impersonally in the passive voice, by changing the personal subject of the active voice into an ablative with the preposition a or ab; as,

Illi pugnant; or pugnātur ab illis, they fight. Illi quarunt, or quaritur ab illis, they ask. Cf. § 141, Rem. 2.

(b) In the passive form, the subject in English is, commonly, either the agent, expressed or understood, or an abstract noun formed from the verb; as,

Pugnātum est, we, they, etc. fought; or, the battle was fought. Concurritur, the people run together; or, there is a concourse.

(c.) Sometimes the English subject in the passive form is, in Latin, an oblique case dependent on the verb; as, fuvetur tibi, thou art favored.

The following are the forms of impersonal verbs in the several conjugations of the passive voice:—

### INDICATIVE MOOD.

Fut.		favētur, favebātur, favebītur,	enrētur,	venītur, veniebātur, veniētur,
	pugnātum est or	fautum est or fuit,	fuit,	ventum est cr
-	pugnātum črat or fučrat,	fuérat,	cursum ĕrat or fuĕrat,	ventum črat or fněrat,
Fut. p.	pugnātum ērit or fuērit.	fautum érit or fuérit.	cursum erit or fuerit.	ventum črit or fučrit.

## SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Imp.	pugnētur, pugnarētur, pugnātum sit <i>or</i>	faveātur, faverētur, fantum sit <i>or</i>	currātur, currerētur, cursum sit or	veniätur, venirētur, ventum sit or
	fuerit,	fuērit,	fněrit,	fuĕrit,
Plup.	pugnātum esset or	fantum esset or	cursum esset or	ventum esset or
-	fuisset.	fnisset.	fuisset.	fuisset.

## INFINITIVE MOOD.

	pugnātum esse or			
Fut.	fuisse,	fuisse,	fuisse,	fuisse,
	nggnātum īri.	fantum īri.	eursum īri.	ventuu īri.

3. In like manner, in the periphrastic conjugation, the neuter gender of the participle in dus, both of active and neuter verbs, is used impersonally with est, etc., and the dative of the person; as, mihi scribendum fuit, I have been obliged to write; moriendum est omnibus, all must die. See § 162, 15, R. 5.

REMARK 1. Grammarians usually reckon only ten real impersonal verbs, all of which are of the second conjugation, viz. decet, libet, licet, liquet, miseret, oportel, piget, panitet, pidet, and ledet. (See § 169.) Four of these, decet, libet, licet, and liquet occur also in the third person plural, but without personal subjects. There seems, however, to be no good reason for distinguishing the verbs above enumerated from other impersonal verbs. The following are such other verbs as are most commonly used impersonally:-



# (a.) In the first conjugation :-

Constat, it is evident. Juvat, it delights. Præstat, it is better. Restat, it remains. Stat, it is resolved.

Văcat, there is leisure. Certătur, there is a contention. Peccatur, a fault is com-

mitted.

Pugnātur, a battle is fought. Statur, they stand firm.

# (b.) In the second conjugation :-

Apparet, it appears. Attinet, it belongs to. Displicet, it displeases. Dölet, it grieves. Miseretur, it distresses. Pătet, it is plain.

Pertinet, it pertains. Placet, it pleases. Fletur, we, etc. weep, or, there is weeping. injury is in-Nocētur, flicted.

Persuadētur, he, they, etc. are persuaded. Pertæsum est, he, they, etc. are disgusted with. Siletur, silence is maintained.

# (c.) In the third conjugation :-

Accidit, it happens. Conducit, it is useful. Contingit, it happens. Fallit, or | it escapes me; Fugit me, | I do not know.

Miserescit, it distresses. Sufficit, it suffices. Creditur, it is believed. Curritur, people run.

Desinitur, there is an end. Scribitur, it is written. Vivitur, we, etc. live.

# (d.) In the fourth conjugation :-

Evenit, it happens.

Convenit, it is agreed Expedit, it is expedient.
upon; it is fit.

Dormitur, we, they, etc. Dormitur, we, they, etc. sleep.

Scitur, it is known. Itur, they, etc. ga. Venitur, they, etc. come.

# (e.) Among irregular verbs:-

Fit, it happens. Interest, it concerns. Obest, it is hurtful.

Prætěrit me, it is unknown to me. Prodest, it avails.

Refert, it concerns. Subit, it occurs. Superest, it remains.

(f.) To these may be added verbs signifying the state of the weather, or the The subject of these may be Jupiter, deus, or colum, operations of nature. which are sometimes expressed. Of this kind are the following:-

Fulget, Fulgurat, it lightens. Fulminat, Gelat, it freezes. Grandinat, it hails.

Lapidat, it rains stones. Lucescit, llucescit, it grows light. Ningit, it snows. Pluit, it rains.

Tonat, it thunders. Advesperascit, evening Invesperascit, proaches.

Lapidat, ningit, and pluit are also used impersonally in the passive voice.

REM. 2. Impersonal rerbs, not being used in the imperative, take the subjunctive in its stead; as, deletet, let it delight. In the passive voice, their perfect participles are used only in the neuter.

REM. 3. Most of the impersonal verbs want participles, gernnds, and supines; but panitet has a present participle, futures in rus and dus, and the gernnd. Padet and pipet have also the gernnd and future passive participle.

REM. 4. Most of the above verbs are also used personally, but frequently in a somewhat different sense: as, ut Tiberis inter eos et pons interesset, so that the Tiber and bridge were between them.

## REDUNDANT VERBS.

§ 185. Redundant verbs are those which have different forms to express the same meaning.

Verbs may be redundant in termination; as, fidirico and fidiricor, to frame;—in conjugation; as,  $l\bar{u}co$ ,  $-\bar{u}re$ , and  $l\bar{u}co$ ,  $-\bar{e}re$ , to wash;—or in certain tenses; as,  $\bar{o}l\bar{l}$  and  $\bar{o}sus$  sum, I hate.

 The following deponent verbs, besides their passive form, have an active form in o, of the same meaning, but which is, in general, rarely used. A few, however, which are marked r., occur more rarely than the corresponding forms in o.

Fabricor, to frame.

Abominor, to abhor. Adulor, to flatter. Altercor, to dispute. Amplexor, to embrace. Arbitror, to suppose. Argutor, to prate. Assentior, to assent. Aucupor, to hunt after. Auguror, to foretell. Aurigor, to drive a chariot. Auspicor, to take the auspices. Cachinnor, r. to laugh aloud. Comitor, to accompany. Commentor, to deliberate. Convivor, to feast together. Cunctor, (cont.), to delay. Dignor, to deem worthy. Depascor, to feed upon. Elucubror, to elaborate.

Feneror, to lend on in-Fluctuor, to fluctuate. Frustror, to disappoint. Fruticor, to sprout. Impertior, r. to impart. Jurgor, to quarrel Lacrimor, r. to weep. Ludificor, to ridicule. Luxurior, r, to be rank. Medicor, to heal. Mereor, to deserve. Metor, to measure. Misercor, to commiserate. Moderor, to moderate. Muneror, r. to bestow. Nictor, r. to wink. Nütrior, r. to nourish. Obsonor, to cater. Opinor, to suppose.

Oscitor, to gape. Pacificor, r. to make a peace. Palpor, to caress. Partior, to divide. Populor, to lay waste. Pinnior, to punish. Ruminor, to ruminate. Sciscitor, to inquire. Sortior, to cast lots. Stabulor, to stable. Tueor, to defend. Tumultuor, to be in confusion. Thtor, to defend. Utor, to use. Urinor, to dire. Velificor, to set sail.

# 2. The following verbs are redundant in conjugation:— 10, -āre, 10, -are, 10, -āre, 10, -hing. Sōno, -āre, 1

Boo, -āre, bo roar.
Bollo, -āre, bo boil.
Bullo, -re, cieo, -āre, lo excite.
Cio, -āre, r. lo excite.
Denso, -āre, to thicken.
Ferveo, -čre, to boil.
Födio, -ēre, bo diy.

Livo, -are, Livo, -tre, Loudon, -tre, Loudo, -tre, Loudon, -tre, -tre, Loudon, -tre, -tre, Loudon, -tre, -tre,

Fulgo, -ere, r. to shine.

Jugation:—
Sōno, -āre, Sōno, -ēre, to sound.
Strīdeo, -ēre, to creak.
Strīdeo, -ēre, to creak.
Tergeo, -ēre, to wipe.
Tueor, -ēri, to protect.

Veneror, to reverence.

Vocif eror, to bawl.

Those marked r. are rarely used.

Mörior, orior, and potior, also, are redundant in conjugation in certain parts. Sec in lists & 174 and 177.

1. Some verbs are spelled alike, or nearly alike, but § 186. differ in conjugation, quantity, pronunciation, or signification, or in two or more of these respects.

Such are the following:--

Abdico, -āre, to abdicate. Abdico, -ère, to refuse. Accido, -ere, to full upon. Accido, -ere, to cut down. Addo, -čre, to add. Adeo, -ire, to go to. Aggiro, -āre, to heap up. Aggero, -ère, to heap upon. Allego, -are, to depute. Allego, -ere, to choose. Appello, -are, to call. Appello, -ere, to drive to. Cado, -ere, to fall. Cædo, -ère, to eut. Cedo, -ere, to yield. Căleo, -ēre, to be hot. Calleo, -ēre, to be hard. Cano, -ere, to sing. Canco, -ere. to be gray. Căreo, -ēre, to want. Cāro, -čre, to card wool. Celo, -are, to conceal. Cælo, -āre, to carre. Censeo, -ere, to think. Sentio, -ire, to feel. Claudo, - re, to shut. Claudo, -čre, to be lame. Colligo, -are, to bind together.

Colligo, -ere, to collect. Colo, -are, to strain. Colo, -ere, to cultivate. Compello, are, to accost. Compello, -ere, to force. Concido, -ere, to cut to pieces.

Concido, -ĕre, to fall. Conscendo, -ere, to embark.

Conscindo, -ĕre, to tear to pieces. Consterno, -are, to terrify.

Consterno, -ere, to strew

Decido, -ĕre, to fall down. Decido, -ere, to cut off. Decipio, -ère, to deceive. Desipio, -cre, to dote. Deligo, -arc, to tie up. Deligo, -ere, to choose. Diligo, -ere, to love. Dico, -ere, to say. Dico, -are, to dedicate.

rdo, -čre, to eat. r.do, -ere, to publish. Educo, -are, to educate. Educo, -ere, to draw out. Eff ero, -are, to make wild. Effero, -re, to carry out. Excido, -ere, to full out. Excido, -ere, to cut off. Ferio, -īre, to strike. Fero, -re, to bear. Ferior,-ari, to keep holiday. Frigeo, -ëre, to be cold. Frigo, -ere, to fry. Fugo, -are, to put to flight. Fugio, ere, to fly. Fundo, -āre, to found. Fundo, -ere, to pour out.

Incido, -ere, to full into. Incido, ere, to cut into. Indico, -are, to show. Indico, ere, to proclaim. Inficio, -ère, to stain. Infitior, -āri, to deny. Intercido, -ère, tohappen. Intercido, -ere, to cut asunder. Jacco, -ēre, to lie. Jacio, -ere, to throw.

Labo, -are, to totter. Labor, -i, to glide. Lacto, -are, to suckle. Lacto, -are, to deceive. Lego, -are, to depute. Lego, -ere, to read. Liceo, -ēre, to be lawful. Liceor, -ēri, to bid for. Liquo, -are, to melt.

Liqueo, -ere, to be manifest. Līquor, -i, to melt. Māno, -āre, to flow. Măneo, -ëre, to stay. Mando, -are, to command Mando, -cre, to eat. Meto, -ere, to reap. Metor, -ari, to measure. Metior, -iri, to measure. Metuo, -ĕre, to fear. Miseror, -āri, to pity. Misěreor, -ēri, to pity. Moror, -ari, to delay.

Morior, -i, to die.

Niteo, -ēre, to glitter.

Nitor, -i, to strive. Obsero, -are, to lock up. Obsero, -ere, to sow. Occido, -ere, to full. Occido, -ere, to kill. Operio, -ire, to cover. Operor, -ari, to work. Opperior, -iri, to wait for. Pando, -āre, to bend. Pando, -ère, to extend. Păro, -āre, to prepare. Păreo, -ēre, to appear. Pario, -ere, to bring forth. Pario, -are, to balance. Pendeo, -ēre, to hang. Pendo, -cre, to weigh. Percolo, -are, to filter. Percolo, -ere, to adorn. Permaneo, -ere, to remain.

Permāno, -āre, to flow through. Prædico, -are, to publish. Prædico, -ère, to foretell. Prodo, -ere, to betray. Prodeo, -ire, to come forth. Recedo, -ere, to retire. Recido, -ère, to fall back. Recido, -ere, to cut off. Reddo, -ere, to restore. Redeo, -ire, to return. Référo, -re, to bring back. Referio, -ire, to strike back. Relego, -are, to remove. Relego, -ere, to read over. Sēdo, -āre, to allay. Sědeo, -ēre, to sit. Sido, -ère, to sink. Séro, -ere, to sow. Sero, -ère, to entwine.

Succido, -ere, to fall under. Succido, -ĕrc, to cut down. Vādo, -ere, to go. Vădor, -āri, to bind over by bail.

Veneo, -ire, to be sold. Vènio, -īre, to come. Vēnor, -āri, to hunt. Vincio, -īre, to bind. Vinco, ere, to conquer. Volo, -are, to fly. Volo, velle, to be willing. Mando, mansum, to chew.

# 2. Different verbs have sometimes the same perfect; as,

Aceo, acui, to be sour.

Acuo, acui, to sharpen.

Cresco, crēvi, to grove.

Cerno, crēvi, to decree.

Fulco, fulsi, to shine.

Lageo, luxi, to sour.

Lageo, luxi, to sour.

Hulco, mulsi, to southe.

Fundo, pēpendi, to keagh.

Pendo, pēpendi, to weigh.

To these add some of the compounds of sto and sisto.

3. Different verbs have sometimes, also, the same supine or perfect participle; as,

Frico, frictum, to rub.
Frigo, frictum, to roast.

Maneo, mausum, to remain.

Paugo, pactum, to drive
in.

Paugo, pactum, to drive
in.

Patior, passus, to suffer.

Teneo, tentum, to hold.

Tendo, tentum, to stretch.

Verro, versum, to brush.

Pando, passum, to extend. Verto, versum, to turn.

DERIVATION OF VERBS.

# § 187. Verbs are derived either from nouns, from adjectives, or from other verbs.

I. Verbs derived from nouns or adjectives are called denomina-

1. (a.) Active denominatives are generally of the first conjugation; those which are neuter, of the second. They are usually formed by adding respectively o and eo to the root; as,

FROM NOUNS.

Actives. Neuters.

Armo, to arm. (arma.)
Fraudo, to defroad, (fraus.)
Komino, to name, (nomen.)
Numéro, to number, (numèrus.)
Vireo, to flourish, (vis.)

From Adjectives.

Albo, to whiten, (albus.)
Celebro, to frequent, (celeber.)
Libero, to free, (liber.)

Albeo, to be white, (albus.)
Calveo, to be bald, (calvus.)
Flavco, to be yellow, (flavus.)

(b.) Sometimes a preposition is prefixed in forming the derivative; as,

Coacervo, to heap together, (acervus.) Exstirpo, to extirpate, (stirps.) Excavo, to excavate, (cavus.) Illaqueo, to insnare, (laqueus.)

Many deponents of the first conjugation, derived from nouns, express
the exercise of the character, office, etc., denoted by the primitive; as, architector, to build; comitor, to accompany; füror, to steal; from architectus,
comes, and für.

 Such as denote resemblance or imitation are called imitatives; as, cornicor, to imitate a crow, from cornic; Gracor, to imitate the Greeks. Some of these end in isso; as, patrisso, to imitate a father.

II. Verbs derived from other verbs are either frequentatives, inceptives, desideratives, diminutives, or intensives.

- 1. Frequentatives express a repetition, or an increase of the action expressed by the primitive.
- (a.) They are all of the first conjugation, and are formed by adding o to the third root; as, domo, (domot-) domoto. So adjuvo, adjuto; dico, dicto; gero, gesto. In verbs of the first conjugation, at of the root is often changed into it; as, clamo, to cry, (clamat-) clamito, to cry frequently.
- (b.) A few frequentatives are formed by adding ito to the first root of the primitive; as, \(\text{ay}\)o (\(\text{ay}\)-) \(\text{ay}\)ito. So \(\text{liteo}\), \(\text{lateo}\), \(\text{late
- (c.) Frequentatives, from primitives of the second, third, and fourth conjugations, sometimes serve again as primitives, from which new frequentatives are formed; as, dico, dicto, dictito; curvo, curso, cursito; venio, vento, vento,
- (d.) Some frequentatives are deponent; as, minitor, from minor (minit-); versor, from verto (vers-). So amplexor, sector, lóquitor, from amplector, séquor, and lóquor.
- (e.) When verbs of this class express simply an increase of the action denoted by the primitive, they are, by some grammarians, called intensives.
- Inceptives, or inchoatives mark the beginning of the action or state expressed by the primitive.
- (a.) They all end in sco, and are formed by adding that termination to the root of the primitive, with its connecting vowel, which, in the third conjugation, is i; as, cdleo, to be hot; cdlesco, to grow hot.
- So lábo, (āre), lábasco: ingemo, (ère), ingémisco; obdormio, (īre), obdormisco. Hisco is contracted for hiasco, from hio, (āre).
- (b.) Most inceptives are formed from verbs of the second conjugation.(c.) Some inceptives are formed from nouns and adjectives by adding asco
- or esco to the root; as, puerasco, from puer; juvenesco, from juvenis.

  Note. Inceptives are all nenter, and of the third conjugation. See § 173.
- Some verbs in sco, which are not inceptives, are active; as, disco, posco.

  3. Desideratives express a desire of doing the act denoted by the primitive.
- (a.) They are formed from the third root, by adding <u>wire</u>; as cano, to sup, (canāt), canātūrio, to desire to sup.
  - (b.) Desideratives are all of the fourth conjugation. See § 176, Note.
- (c.) Verbs in <u>ūrio</u>, having <u>u</u> long, are not desideratives; as, prūrio, līgūrio.
- 4. Diminutives denote a feeble or trilling action. They are formed by adding illo to the root of the primitive; as, conscribillo, to scribble, from conscribo.

They are few in number, and are all of the first conjugation.

5. Intensives denote eager action. They are usually formed by adding so, esso, or isso to the root of the primitive; as, făcesso, to act earnestly—from făcio.

So căpesso, incesso, from căpio and incedo. Concăpisco, to desire greatly, though in form an inceptive, is, in its signification, an intensive.

NOTE. Verbs of all these classes have sometimes simply the meaning of their primitives.

## COMPOSITION OF VERBS.

# § 188. Verbs are compounded variously:-

1. Of a noun and a verb; as, ædifico, belligero, lucrifacio. See § 103, R. 1.

2. Of an adjective and a verb; as, amplifico, multiplico.

3. Of two verbs; as, califacio, madef acio, patef acio.

Rem. In verbs of this class, the first part, which is a verb of the second conjugation, loses its final o; the second part is always the verb facio.

4. Of an adverb and a verb; as, běněf ácio, málědico, sátágo, nölo, negligo.

5. Of a preposition and a verb'; as, addaco, excolo, prodo, subrepo, discerno, sējungo.

6. Of a preposition and a noun, as, pernocto, irrêtio.

§ 189. In composition with particles, the vowels a and e and the diphthong a in the radical syllable of the simple verb are often changed in the compound.

1. The following simple verbs in composition change a into e :=

Părio, Arceo, Carpo, Farcio, Jacto, Patro, Spargo, Fátiscor, Lacto. Partio. Candeo. Damno. Sacro. Tracto. Fallo. Gradior. Mando. Pătior. Capto, Scando.

Exc. A is retained in amando, præmando, desacro, and retracto; prædamno, and pertracto sometimes also occur. A is also changed into e in occento from canto, and anhelo from halo; comperco also is found.

2. The following, in the first root, change ă and ě into i; viz. ago, cădo, egeo, emo, frango, pango, premo, rego, sedeo, specio, tango.

 These change ă and ĕ, in the first and second roots, into ĭ; viz. sălio, to leap, săpio, tăceo, and těneo.

These change ă into i, and œ into i, in all the roots; viz.
hăbeo, lăcio, lăteo, placeo, stătuo; cœdo, lædo, and quæro.

5. The following change  $\check{a}$ , in the first root, into  $\check{\iota}$ , and in the third root into e; viz.

căno, căpio, făteor, jăcio, răpio, and apiscor.

Exc. (a.) A is retained in circumágo, perágo, satágo; antihábeo, posthábeo, dipango, répango, compláceo, and perpláceo. Occar. E is retained in como, circumsédeo, and sipersédeo. Anticópio and anticipo are both used; so also are siperjúcio and siperjício.

(b.) Cigo and dego are formed, by contraction, from con, de, and ago, demo, promo and samo, from de, pro, sub, and emo; prabeo, and perhaps debeo, from

præ, de, and habeo; pergo and surgo, from per, sub, and rego.

Note 1. Fácio, compounded with a preposition, changes  $\hat{a}$  into i in the first root, and into e in the third; as, afficio, afficio, afficio, and aso drop i before o, and are of the first conjugation; as, significo, lettifico, magnifico. Spécio forms some compounds in the same manner; as, conspicor and suspicor.

NOTE 2. Légo, compounded with con, de, di, e, inter, nec, and se, changes & into i, in the first root; as, colligo, negligo, etc.; but with ad, præ, per, re, sub,

and trans, it retains e; as, allego.

Note 3. Calco and salto, in composition, change a into u; as, inculco, insulto. Plaudo changes au into \(\tilde{\ell}\); as, explicto; except applicado. Audio changes au into \(\tilde{\ell}\); in obedio. Causo, claudo, and quotio, drop a; as, accuso, réclado, percutio. Juro changes \(\tilde{u}\) into \(\tilde{\ell}\) into \(\tilde{e}\) into \(\tilde{e}\) in tie.

Note 4. In the compounds of căveo, măneo, and trāho,  $\ddot{a}$  remains unchanged, and so also does  $\alpha$  in the compounds of hareo.

NOTE 5. The simple verbs with which the following are compounded are not used:—

Dēfendo.	Impědio,	Confuto,	Instigo,	Conniveo,	
Offendo.	Imbuo.	Refuto.	Impleo,	Percello.	
Experior.	Compello, (-āre,)	Ingruo,	Compleo,	Induo,	and some
Expedio,	Appello, (-are,)	Congruo,	Rěnideo,	Exuo,	others.

For the changes produced in prepositions by composition with verbs see § 196.

# PARTICLES.

§ 190. 1. Particles are those parts of speech which are neither declined nor conjugated. They are divided into four classes—adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections.

Note. A word may sometimes belong to two or more of these classes, according to its connection.

# ADVERBS.

2. An adverb is a particle used to modify or limit the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb; as,

Běne et sapienter dizit, he spoke well and wisely; Cinis egrégie fidélis, a remarkadly faithful dog; Nimis valde lawlare, to praise too much. Compare § 277, R. 1.

3. Adverbs, in regard to their signification, are divided into various classes; as, adverbs of place, time, manner, etc., and some belong to either class according to their connection.

4. In regard to their etymology, adverbs are either primitive or derivative.

REMARK. Among primitive adverbs are here classed not only such as cannot be traced to any more remote root, but also all which are not included in the regular classes of derivative adverbs hereafter mentioned.

## PRIMITIVE ADVERBS.

§ 191. The primitive adverbs are few in number, when compared with the derivatives, and most of them are contained in the following lists marked I, II, and III.

# I. Adverbs of Place and Order.

	at alarendo de a table and ordere						
	ădeo, so far, as fai ădhūc, to this place	r.	ălicăbi, somewhere.	ălĭquövei	rsum, toward		
	adhuc, to this place		alicunde, from some	some p	lace.		
	adversus,	opposite,	place.	ăliundě,	from another		
	adversum,		alio, to another place.	place.			
	exadversus,-nm,	toward.	ăliquă, in some way. ăliorsum, toward anoth-	circa,			
ăliā, by another way.		aliorsum, toward anoth-	circum,	атоина.			
ăliās, in another place.		er place.	circiter.	on every side.			
	alibi, elsewhere.		aliquo, to some place.	circumci	rcā, all around.		
			•		,		

infrā, below, beneath.

citra, on this side. citro, hither. contră, over against. coram, before. dehine, henceforth. deinceps, successively. deinde, after that. dēmque, finally. denuo, again, deorsum, downward. dextror-um, toward the

richt. ea, that way. eadem, the same way. eo, to that place, thither. eodem, to the same place. exinde, after that. extră, without. extrinscens, from without. f ŏrās, out of doors. f oris, without. hāc, this way. hactenus, thus far. hīc, here. hine, hence. hūc, hither.

hūcusquē, thus far. hersum, hitherward. Ibi, there. Ibidem, in the same place. illae, that way. illic, there. illine, thence. illö, thither. illorsum, thitherward.

illūc, thither. inde, thence.

indidem, from the same quoquoversus, toward

Inībi, in thát place. Intrinsécus, from within. intrā, intro, ) introrsum, within. intūs, istãe, that way. istic, there. istinc, thence. isto, istue, thither. juxtā, near, alike. nēcūbi, lest any where. neutro, to neither side. neutrubi, to neither place, to neither side. nullībi, no where. nusquam, pēnītūs, within. pone, post, behind, back. porro, onward. procal, far. prope, propter, near. prorsum, forward. protinus, onward. qua? in which way? anāguā, quacumque, | soever.

rchat way quaque, wheresoever. qualibet, { in every way. quo? whither? quousque, \ how far. quopiam, to some place. quoquam,

quoquo, ) whitherquocumque, \ soever. every sule.

quorsum? whitherward? quotis, quolibet, to every place. retro, backward. retrorsum, back. rursum, sīcubi, if any where. sīcundē, if from any place. sinistrorsum, toward the

subter, beneath. super, supra, above, on top. sursum, iqueard. tum, then, in the next

place. ŭbi? where? ŭbicumquē, | wherever, wheresoever. ŭbiŭbi, ŭbilībēt, ) anu where. ŭbīquĕ, ( every where. ŭbivis, ultra, ultro, beyond. und ? whence? undelibet, from every undévis, where. undlque, undeundě, ) whenceundecumque, | soever. uspiam, | somewhere, usquam, | any where. usque, all the way. usquequaque, in all ways. utrimque, on both sides. utro? which way? utrobi? in which place? utrobique, in both places. utroque, to both sides. utroqueversum, toward both sides.

REMARK 1. (a.) The interrogative adverbs of place, \(\delta bi\)? where? und\(\delta f\) whence? \(qualita \text{\$\text{\$l}\$}\) whither? and \(qualita i\) what way? have relation to other adverbs formed in a similar manner, thus constituting a system of adverbial correlatives similar to that of the pronominal adjectives. See § 139, 5, (3.)

(b.) As in the case of the pronominal correlatives, the interrogative and relative forms are alike, beginning with u or qu. The demonstratives are formed from is, which is strengthened by dem, and the indefinite from aliquis. The general relatives and the general indefinites or universals, like those of the pronominal adjectives, are made, the former by doubling the simple relatives or by appending to them the termination cumque, 'soever,' and the latter by adding que vis or libet. Thus:

Interrog.	Demonstr. Ibi.	<i>Relat.</i> ŭbi,	Gen. Relat.,	Indefin. ălicăbi.	Gen. Indefin. ŭbique.
uorr	ībīdem,	ubi,	ŭbicumqde,	ancubi,	ŭbivis, ŭbilibět.
undě?	indě, indidem,	undě,	undeundě, unděcumquě,	ălicunde,	undique, undevis, undelibet.
quō?	eō, eōdem,	quō,	quōquō, quōcumquĕ,	ălīquō,	quovīs,
quã?	eā, eādem.	quă,	quāquā, quācumque,	ălīquā.	quāvīs, quālībēt.

(c.) To those answering to ubi? may be added alibi, nullibi, and tuibi, the latter being a strengthened form of ibi. In like manner aliunde, utrimque, intrinsēcus, and extrinsēcus may be added to those unswering to unde? and alio to those answering to quo? So also to utro? answer utroque and neutro.

(d.) The demonstratives ibi, inde, and eo are used only in reference to relative sentences which precede; but more definite demonstratives are formed from the pronouns hic, iste, and ille, answering in like manner to ubi? unde? and quo? These together with the preceding correlatives are, in the following table, arranged respectively under their several interrogatives ubi? under quo? qua? and quorsum?-Thus :

ŭbi?	undě?	quō?	quā?	quorsum?
hīe,	hine,	ĥũc,	ĥāc,	ĥorsum,
istīc.	istine,	istūe,	istāe,	istorsum,
illie,	illine,	illūc,	illāe,	illorsum,
ībi,	indě,	eō,	eā,	<u></u> ,
ībīdem,	indidem,	eödem,	eādem,	
ălībi,	ăliundě,	ăliō,	ăliā,	ăliorsum,
ălicăbi.	ălieundě.	ălionő.	ălionă.	ălionoversu

(e.) Hic, hine, hue, refer to the place of the speaker; istic, istine, istue, to the place of the second person or person addressed; and illie, illine, illie, to that of the third person or the person or thing spoken of. Cf. § 207, R. 23, (a.) and (d.)

(f.) The interrogative adverbs ubi, unde, quo, qua, etc. are often used without a question, simply as adverbs of place; as, In eam partem ituros, atque ibi futuros Helvetios, ubi eos Cesar constituisset.

(g.) In consequence of a transfer of their meaning, some of the adverbs of place, as, hīc, ibi, ŭbi, hinc, inde, hactenus, etc., become also adverbs of time, and some of them are used also as conjunctions.

# Adverbs of Time. illieō, immediately.

actūtum, immediately. abhine, from this time. ădeō, so long (as). ădhūc, until now, still. alias, at another time aliquamdiu, for awhile. ăliquando, at some time. aliquoties, several times. ante, | before, anteā, | previously. antchác, formerly. bis, twice. (see § 119). circiter, about, near. erās, tomorrow. cum or quum, when. deinceps, in succession. deinde or dein, \ thereupon, exinde or exin, \ afterward. dehine, from this time. dëmnin, at length. denique, lastly. din, long. dūdum, previously. eousque, so long. here or heri, yesterday. hie, here, hereupon. hinc, from this time, since. hodie, to-day. ibi, then, thereupon. identidem, now and then, repeatedly.

inde, after that, then. interdum, sometimes. interim, meanwhile. itérum, again. jam, nów, already. jamdūdum, } long ago. jamjam, presently. jampridem, long since. modo, just now. mox, soon after. nondum, not yet. nonnumquam, sometimes. sape, often. nūdins tertius, three days semel, once. nnne, now. numquam, never. nupěr, lately. ölim, formerly. părumpěr, (for a short paulisper, \ time. perendie, two days hence. porro, hereafter, in fu-

ture. post, posten, afterwards. posthae, hereafter. postrīdiē, the day after. pridem, long since. pridie, the day before. protinus, instantly.

quamdiū? how long? qnando? when? quandocumquě, whenerer. quandoque, at some time.

quater, four times. quousque? \ how long ? quondam, formerly. quotidie, daily. quoties? how often? quum or eum, when. rursus, again.

sempēr, always. statim, immediately. săbinde, immediately, now and then.

tamdin, so long. tandem, at length. tantispër, for so long. ter, thrice. tŏtiēs, so often.

tum, tune, then. ŭbi, when, as soon as. umquam, ever. usque, until, ever. ŭt or ŭti, as, as soon as,

when.

# III. Adverbs of Manner, Quality, Degree, etc,

adeo. so, to that degree. admodum, very much. ăliter, otherwise. ceu, as, like as. cur? why? duntaxăt, only, at least. ětiam, also, truly, yes. ětiamnunc, also, besides. ferme, almost, nearly. fortasse, perhaps. frustrā, in vain. grātīs, freely. hand, not. haudquāquam, by no means. hūcusquě, so far. identidem, constantly. immo, nay, on the contrary. Itá, so. item, just so, also. Itidem, in like manner. juxta, equally, alike. māgis, more. modo, only. næ or nē, truly, verily. nē, not. nēdum, much tess.

nempě, truly, forsooth.

nimirum, certainly, to be

nēquāquam, į by no

neutiquam, I means.

sure.

nimium, too much. non, not. omnino, altogether, only. pæně, almost. pălam, openly. pariter, equally. parum, too little. paulatim, by degrees. penitus, wholly. përindë, 1 just as, proindë, } as though. perquam, very much. plerumque, for the most part, commonly. potins, rather. porro, moreover, then. præter, beyond, except. præsertim, particularly. profecto, truly. prope, almost, near. propemodum, almost. prorsus, wholly. quam, how much, as. quamobrem, wherefore. quare? why? wherefore? quasi, as if, as it were. quemadmodum, as. quidem, ; indeed. quomodo? how? in what manner? quoque, also. rite, duly. saltem, at least.

sānē, truly. satis, senough. sătius, rather. scilicet, truly, to wit. secus, otherwise. seorsum, seorsus, separately. sīc. so. sīcūtī, } so as, as. simul, together. singillatim, one by one. solum, only, alone. tam, so, so much. tamquam, like, as if. tantopèré, so greatly. tantum, so much, only. tantummodo, only. tem re, at random. ūnā, together. usquequaque, in all points. in all ways. ŭt, / ŭtique, at any rate, certainly. utpôte, as, inasmuch as. valde, very much. vel, even. veluti, as, like as, for veluti, example. vicissim, in turn, again. videlicet, clearly, to wit. vix, scarcely.

Rem. 2. Adverbs denoting quality, manner, etc., are sometimes divided into those of, 1. Quality; as, bēnā, mādē. 2. Certainty; as, certē, plānē. 3. Constingence; as, fortē. 4. Negation; as, haud, nōn, nō, imnō. 5. Affirmation; as, ne, quidem, ūtuynē, neupē. 6. Swearing; as, herelē. 7. Explaining; as, tūdēlīcīt, utpōtē. 8. Separation as, scorsum. 9. Joining together; as, simāl, imā. 10. Interrogation; as, cūr² quārē? 11. Quantity or degree; as, sitās, ādeō. 12. Excess; as, perquam, mozēmē. 13. Defect; as, pārum, pænē. 14. Preference; as, pōtūs, sātūs. 15. Likencess; as, itā, sic. 16. Unlikeness; as, ālūēr. 17. Exclusion; as, tautum, sōlum.

Rem. 3. Non is the ordinary Latin negation. Hand signifies either 'not at all,' or 'not exactly.' It is used by the comic and later writers in all combinations, but in the authors of the best age its use is more especially limited to its connection with adjectives and adverbs denoting a measure; as, houd multum, hand parayus, hand meliouris, houd pando, hand proved, hand longe, especially hand sine in connection with other words; as, houd sone facile, resembled with the common phrase hand sine in the connection with other words; as, houd sone facile, resembled with the common phrase hand sine in which is equivalent to nession an-Ne's, (or n') is the primitive Latin negative particle, signifying no or not. It is used in this sense and as an adverb, (a) with quidem to make an emphate negation of the word standing between them; as, no in oppolits quidem, not even in the towns; (b) in composition as in nession, refres, neader, etc.; (c) with imperatives and

subjunctives used as imperatives; as,  $N\bar{e}$  puēri,  $n\bar{e}$  tanta animis assuescite bella. Virg. So, also, in wishes and asseverations; as,  $N\bar{e}$  id Jupiter sinëret, may Jupiter forbid it. Liv.  $N\bar{e}$  viram, s is civ, may I die, if I know. Cic.; and in concessive and restrictive clauses; as,  $N\bar{e}$  puērit, suppose there was not. Cic. Sint miseriordes in fravibus earait, ne illis sanquinem nostram largiantur, only let them not, etc. Cic. So dum ne, dunamõdo ne, nõdo ne, dum quidem ne; and in intentional clauses with ut.-Im mo, as a negative, substitutes something stronger in the place of the preceding statement, which is denied; as, Causa intur non bona est! Inturo quima, sed, etc. Cic. It may often be translated by 'nay,' or 'nay even.'

Rem. 4. Quidem gives particular emphasis to a word or an idea, and then some rest our 'certainly' or 'indeed,' but frequently, especially with a pronoun, it merely adds emphasis. Equidem, which is considered as a compound of ego and quidem, is used exclusively in this sense by Cicero, Virgil, and Horace, but by other and particularly by later writers it is used like quidem - Nempe, 'surely,' is often used ironically, when we refute a person by concessions which he is obliged to make, or by deductions. In other connections it may be translated 'namely.'

Rem. 5. Sic, itâ, tam, as also  $tant\delta p\bar{e}re$ , and  $\bar{a}$  de $\bar{o}$  signify 'so,' Sic is more particularly the demonstrative 'so,' or 'thus'; as, sic seres habet. Ita defines or limits more accurately, and is equivalent to our 'in such a manner,' or 'only in so far'; as, ita defendito, at nentnem ledas. Frequently, however, ita has the signification of sic, but sic has not the limiting sense of tax-Tam, 'so much,' generally stands before adjectives and adverbs, and increases the degree; before vowels tantopère is generally used instead of tam-Adeo, 'to that degree' or 'point,' increases the expression to a certain end or result. Hence it forms the transition to the conclusion of an argument or to the essential part of a thing; and Cicero employs it to introduce the proofs of what he has previously alleged; as, Id adeo ex ipso sendus consulto cognoscite, and always in such case puts adea after a pronoun.

Rem. 6.  $Um\,qu\,a\,m$ , 'ever,' and ' $us\,qu\,a\,m$ , 'somewhere,' like quisquam, require a negation in the sentence, and thus become equivalent to numquam and nusquam. A negative question, however, may supply the place of a negative proposition; as, num tu eum umquam vidisti'— $Us\,pi\,a\,m$ , like quispiam, is not negative, but is the same as  $dit\,dib$ , but strengthened, just as quispiam is the same as aliquis. So, also, quipiam is used affirmatively, and quipiam negatively.— $Ja\,m$ , with a negative, answers to our 'longer'; as, Nitil' jam  $pp^pro$ , I no longer hope for any thing. When used to connect sentences it signifies 'further,' or 'now.— $Us\,q\,u\,e$  is commonly accompanied by the prepositions  $ad, in, ab, or\,ex$ . It rarely signifies 'ever and anon'; as, Natūrum expellus furcā, tāmen usque recurret. Hor.— $N\,a\,p\,e\,r$ ,  $m\,o\,d\,o$ , and  $m\,o\,x$  are relative and indefinite.— $D\,\bar{u}\,d\,u\,m$ , 'previously,' or 'bofore,' in relation to a time which has just passed away, may often be translated 'just before.'— $Ja\,m\,d\,a\,d\,u\,m$  signifies 'long before,' or 'long since.' With the poets jamdalum contains the idea of impatience, and signifies 'without delay,' 'forthwith'; as, Jamdalum suntite penas. Virg.— $Ta\,u\,d\,e\,m$ , 'at length,' also expresses the impatience with which a question is put.

REM. 7. Tunc is 'then,' 'at that time,' in opposition to nunc, 'now': Tun is 'then,' as the correlative of quum,' when;' as, quum omnes adessent, then idee acrosses est diere, when all were present, then he began to speak. Without a relative sentence tum signifies 'hereupon,' or 'thereupon'; but a relative sentence may always be supplied. The same difference exists between eliam nunc and etiam lum, 'still,' or 'yet'; and between nunc ipsum and lum ipsum; quummaxime and lummaxime, 'iust,' or 'even then'; for etiam nunc, nunc ipsum and quum maxime refer to the present; but eliamlum, 'tum ipsum, and lummaxime, to the past.

## DERIVATION OF ADVERBS.

- § 192. Adverbs are derived from nouns, adjectives, pronouns, and participles.
- I. From Nouns.
- 1. Of these a few end in im (generally ātim), and denote manner; as,
- grēgātim, in herds; membrātim, limb by limb; vicissātim, or more frequently, vicissim, by turns; from grex, membrum, and vicis.
  - 2. Some end in itus, and denote origin or manner; as,
- cælitus, from heaven; funditus, from the bottom;  $r\bar{u}dicitus$ , by the roots; from cælum, fundus, and  $r\bar{u}dix$ .
- 3. Some are merely the different cases of nouns used adverbially; as,
- (a) Some adverbs of time; as, mānē, noctā, dū, tempôrē or tempôrī, Inttiā, princīpiā, môdo.—(b.) Adverbs of place; as, förās.—(c.) Adverbs of manner; as, spontē, forēt, grātis or grātis, ingrātis, vulgā, partim.
  - II. From Adjectives and Participles.

By far the greater number of derivative adverbs come from adjectives and participles (present and perfect), and end in  $\bar{e}$  and  $t\bar{e}r$ .

1. Adverbs derived from adjectives and participles of the second declension, are formed by adding  $\bar{e}$  to the root; as,

ægrē, scarcely; altī, high: lībērē, freely; longē, far; misērē, miserably; plēnē, plēnē, plēnā, dotē; learnelly; ornātē, elegantly; from œgēr, altas, lībēr, longās, māsē, plēnās, doctās, and ornātās. Bēnē, well, is from bōnās, or nolder form bōnās.

REMARK. A few adverbs in e differ in meaning from their adjectives; as, sānē, certainly; valdē, very; from sānās, sound, well; and vālidās, strong.

Exc. 1. A few adverbs derived from adjectives and participles of the second declension, add 'ter, 'ta's, 'im, or atim to the root; as,

nācilēr, actively; antiquitās, anciently; divinitās, divinely; prirātim, privately; tuātim, after your manner; sangūlātim, singillatim, sigillātim, or singultim, severally; casim, carptim, sensim, statim, etc. irom nāvās, antiquūs, divinūs, prīvātūs, tuūs, singult, casūs, carptūs, etc.

- Exc. 2. Some adverbs are formed with two or more of the above terminations with the same meaning; as, divê, divîtêr; fîrmê, firmîbe; môvê, môvîbe; largê, largitêr; lacalentê, lacalenber: twebalenbe, twebalenber: so cautê and cautim; hamânê, hamatutêr, and hamatutus; publicê and publicitus.
- Adverbs derived from adjectives and participles of the third declension, are formed by adding \(\textit{u}\vertice{v}\) to the root, except when it ends in \(t\), in which case \(\vertice{v}\) only is added; as,

ācritēr, sharply: fēlicitēr, happily: turpitēr, basely:—légantly; prādentēr, prudently: āmantēr, lovingly: prāpērantēr, hastily; from ācēr, fēlke, turpis, ētēgans, prālens, āmans, and prāpērans. So also from the obsolete ālis for dlās, and prāpis, (neuter prāpē), come āltēr and praptēr for prāpitēr.

Exc. From audax comes by syncope audactir: from fortis comes fortiter; from omnis, omnino; from über, übertim; and from nequam, nequiter.

3. From the cardinal numerals are formed numeral adverbs in ies; as,

quinquies, décies, from quinque and décem. So tôties and quôties, from tôt and quốt. See § 119.

4. Some adverbs are merely certain cases of adjectives. Such are.

(a.) Ablatives in ō, from adjectives and participles of the second declension; as, citô, quickly; contina immediately; falsō, falsely; cribro, frequently; mbrito, deservedly; mbrito, unexpectedly; formio, by chance; caspicalo, amplicously; consido, designedly; and a few in  $\bar{a}$  from adjectives of the first declension; as, recta, straight on; una, together. In like manner, repente, suddenly, from repens; and peregre or peregri, from pereger.

(b.) Nominatives or accusatives of the third declension in the neuter singular; as, fàcilé, difficilé, récens, sublimé, and impané; and some also of the second declension; as, cétérum, plerumqué, multum, plarimum, pótissimum, pautum, nimium, parum, and the numeral adverbs, primum, iterum, tertium, quartum, etc. which have also the termination in \(\bar{o}\), and so also postremum (\(\bar{o}\)), and ultimum (o). The neuter plural sometimes occurs also, especially in poetry; as, multă gemere ; tristia ululare ; crebra ferire.

(c.) Accusatives of the first declension; as, bifariam, trifariam, multifariam, omnifariam, etc. seil. partem.

Note 1. The forms in ē and ō from adjectives of the second declension have generally the same meaning, but reve and reve have a somewhat different sense. Vere truly, is the regular adverb of veries, trule; but vere is used in answers, in the sense of in truth, or certainly. In this use it is added to the verb used in the question; as, adfustine heri in convivo? The affirmative answer is ego vero adfui, or without the verb, ego vero, and negatively, minime vēro; and as vēro thus merely indicates a reply, it is often untranslatable into English - Certo, on the other hand, usually takes the meaning of the adjective certus, while certe often signifies 'at least'; as, victi sumus, aut, si dignitus vinci non potest, fracti verte; but verte is frequently used in the sense of 'certainly,' especially in the phrase certe seio.

Note 2. Some adjectives, from the nature of their signification, have no corresponding adverbs. Of some others, also, none occur in the classics. Such are āmens, dīrus, discors, gnārus, rudis, trux, imbellis, immobilis, and similar compounds. In place of the adverbs formed from retus and fulus, vetuste and antique are used for the former, and fideliter for the latter, from vetustus, antiquus, and fidelis.

 From the adjective pronouns are derived adverbs of place, etc. (See § 191, Rem. 1.)

REMARK. The terminations o and uc denote the place whither, instead of the accusative of the pronoun with a preposition; as, eo for ad eum locum; huc for ad hunc locum; the terminations do and inc denote the place from which; i and ic, the place in which; and a and ac, the place by or through which; as, eā; viā or parte being understood.

IV. (a.) A few adverbs are derived from prepositions; as, subtus, beneath; from sub; propter, near; from prope. (b.) Mordicus and versus are derived from the verbs mordeo and verto.

REMARK. Diminutives are formed from a few adverbs; as, clam, clanculum; primum, primulum; celerius, celeriuscule; sapius, sapiuscule; bene, belle, bellissime.

# COMPOSITION OF ADVERBS.

# § 193. Adverbs are compounded variously:-

- Of an adjective and a noun; as, postridě, quotidě, magnópěrě, maximôpěrě, summôpěrě, quantôpěrě, tantôpěré, tantummôdo, solummôdo, multimôdis, quôtannis of postěrô die, magnô ôperé, etc.
  - 2. Of a pronoun and a noun; as, hodie, quare, quomodo-of hoc die, qua re, etc.
  - 3. Of an adverb and a noun; as, nūdiūs, sapēnāmēro-of nunc dies, etc.
- 4. Of a preposition and a noun; as, comminăs, ēminăs, illico, öbiter, extemplo, obviam, postmódò, admódum, propédiem—of con, e, and mánăs; in and lócăs; etc.
- 5. Of an adjective and a pronoun; as, alioqui or alioquin, ceteroqui or ceteroquin—of alius and qui, i. e. alio quo (modo), etc.
- 6. Of a pronoun and an adverb; as, āliquamdiā, ālicūbi—of āliquīs, diū, and ābi; nēquāquam and nēquicquam—of nē and quisquam.
  - 7. Of two verbs; as, ilicet, scilicet ridelicet of ire, scire, ridere, and licet.
- 8. Of an adverb and a verb; as, quōlibēt, ūbivīs, undēlibēt. So deinceps—from dein and cāpio; duntaxat—from dum and taxo.
- 9. Of a participle with various parts of speech; as, deorsum, dextrorsum, horsum, retrorsum, sursum—of dē, dexter, hīc, retro, sāpēr, and vorsās or versās.
- 10. Of two adverbs; as, jamdūdum, quamdiū, tamdiū, cummaximē, tummaximē, quousquē, sīcūt.
- 11. Of a preposition and an adjective; as, denuo, imprimis, cumprimis, apprime, incassum—of de nore, in primis, etc.
- 12. Of a preposition and a pronoun; as, quaprepter, posteā, intereā, prætereā, hactenis, quatenis, aliquatenis, eatenis—ot propter que, post ea or eam, etc.
- 13. Of a preposition and an adverb; as, ăbhinc, ădhāc, dērēpentē, interibi, interdiū, interdum, persapē.
- 14. Of two or three prepositions; as, insuper, protinus, inde, dein, deinde, perinde.
  - 15. Of a conjunction and an adverb; as, necăbi, sīcābi—of ne, sī, and ālicābi.
- 16. Of an adverb and a termination scarcely used except in composition; as, thidem, parumper, quantifocumque, abique, atcumque.
- Of three different parts of speech; as, forsităn—of fors, št, ăn, quemadmodum, quamobrem, etc.
  - 18. Of an adverb and an adjective; as, nimirum, utpote.
  - Of an adjective and a verb; as, quantumris, quantumlibēt.

# Signification of certain Compound and Derivative Adverbs.

- 1. The adverbs continuo, protinus, statim, confestim, sabito, répente and direpente, actūtum, illico, ilicct, extemplo, signify in general 'directly' or 'immediately'; but, strictly, continuo means, 'immediately after'; statim, 'without delay'; confestim, 'directly'; sabito, 'suddenly, unexpectedly'; protinus, 'farther,' viz. in the same direction, and hence, 'without interruption'; répente and direpente, 'at once,' opposed to sensim, 'gradually,' (see Cic. Off. 1, 33), actūtum, 'instantancously,' i. q. eòdem actū; illico, and more rarely ilicet, 'forthavith, the instant,' (Virg. En. 2, 424, Cic. Mur. 10); so also extemplo, (Liv. 41, 1).
- 2. Pressertine, practipue, imprimis, comprimis, apprime, are generally translated 'principally,' but, properly, presectine is particularly,' and sets forth a particular circumstance with emphasis; practipue, from practipio, has reference to privilege, and signifies 'especially',' imprimis and comprimis, signify' principally,' or 'in preterence to others'; and apprinc, 'before all,' very,' is used.

in pure Latin to qualify and strengthen only adjectives. Admôdum properly signifies 'according to measure,' that is, 'in as great a measure as can be,' very, exceedingly.' With numerals it denotes approximation, 'about.' Admôdum nihil and admôdum nullus signify 'nothing at all' and 'no one at all.'

3. Modo is the usual equivalent for 'only.' Sölum, 'alone,' 'merely,' points to something higher or greater. Trantum, 'only,' 'merely,' intendes that something else was expected. The significations of sölum and lantum are strengthened by modo, forming sölummodo and lantummodo. Duntacatt, 'only, solely,' is not joined with verbs. It also signifies 'at least,' denoting a limitation to a particular point. Sollem also signifies 'at least,' dut denotes the reduction of a demand to a minimum; as, Eripe mini hunc dolorem, aut minue saltem.

4. Frustrā implies a disappointed expectation; as in frustra suscipère labores. Nequicquam denotes the absence of success, as in Hor. Carm. 1, 3, 21. Incassum, composed of in and cassum, 'hollow' or 'empty,' signifies 'to no purpose'; as, têla incassum jacère.

# COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

§ 194. 1. Adverbs derived from adjectives with the terminations  $\tilde{e}$  and  $t\tilde{e}r$ , and most of those in o, are compared like their primitives.

2. The comparative, like the neuter comparative of the adjective, ends in its; the superlative is formed from the superlative of the ad-

jective by changing us into e; as,

dūrė, dūrius, dūrissimė; facilė, facilius, facillimė; acriter, acrius, acerrimė; raro, rarius, rarissime; matūrė, matūrius, matūrissime or maturrime.

3. Some adverbs have superlatives in  $\bar{v}$  or um; as,  $m\check{e}r\check{t}tissim\bar{v}$ ,  $pl\bar{u}r\check{t}mum$ ,  $pr\bar{t}m\bar{v}$  or  $pr\bar{t}mum$ ,  $p\check{v}tissimum$ .

4. If the comparison of the adjective is irregular or defective, (see §§ 125, 126), that of the adverb is so likewise; as,

běně, měliús, optimě; můlě, pějús, pessimě; párum, minůs, minimė; multum, plūs, plūrimum; —, priūs, primō or primum; —, öciás, öcissime; —, dětěriús, děterrime; —, polius, polissime or polissimum; měrtilo, —, měrtilissimo; sätts, sátiús, —. Mūgis, maximě, (from magnūs,) lus no positive; nūpěr, nūperrime, has no comparative. Prôpě, prôpiūs, prozinie: the uljective prôpiôr has no positive in use. The regular adverb in the positive degree from ūběr is wanting, its place being supplied by ūbertim, but ūběriās and ūberrimē are used. So instead of trističe, tristě, the neuter of tristis, is used, but the comparative tristiús is regular; and from sūcors only sōcordiūs, the comparative, is in use.

5. Diū and sepē, though not derived from adjectives, are yet compared;—
dū, diūtis, diūtissāms; sepē, sepūs, sepūsāme. A comparative tempēriūs, from
tempēri or tempēr, also sometimes occurs. So sēcās, sēcās.

6. Adverbs, like adjectives, are sometimes compared by prefixing mägšs and maximē; as, mägšs äpertē, maximē accommödātē.

# PREPOSITIONS.

§ 195. 1. A preposition is a particle which expresses the relation between a noun or pronoun and some preceding word.

 Prepositions express the relations of persons or things, either to one another, or to actions and conditions; as, dimor meus erga te, my love toward thee; to ad te, 1 go to thee.

- 3. Some prepositions have the noun or pronoun which follows them in the accusative, some, in the ablative, and some, in either the accusative or the ablative.
  - 4. Twenty-six prepositions have an accusative after them:-

ăd, to, towards, at, for.
adversüs, l aguinst,
adversus, l aguinst,
adversum, l towards.
ante, before, in presence ifcirca, around, about.
circitir, about, near.
cis, on this side, within.
contra, aguinst, opposite.
ergā, towards, opposite.

extră, without, beyond.
intră, under, beneath.
intră, betwen, among,
during.
intră, within.
juxtă, near to, next to.
ob, for, on account of,
before.
pèn'es, in the power of,
with.
pèr, through, throughout,

post, after, since, behind, practer, past, before, against, beyond, besides, propter, near on, account of.

accountment, after, behind, along, neat to, according to, supră, above, over, truns, over, beyond.

ultră, beyond.

# 5. Eleven prepositions have after them an ablative:-

by, during.

pone, behind.

ā, āb, hrom, after, by. abs, absquē, without, but for. coram, before, in presence of. cum, with. dē, from, down from, after, of, concerning.
ē, lout of, from, of, by,
ex, ofter.
pālam, before, in presence of.

præ, before, for, on account of, in comparison with. prō, before, for, instead of, according to. sinc, without. tenns, as far as, up to.

6. Five prepositions take after them sometimes an accusative, and sometimes an ablative:—

clam, without the knowl- sub, under, about, near. super, above, over; upon,

 clam, without the knowledge of.
 In, in, on; to, into, against.

 săh, under, about, near subter, under, beneath. super, above, over; upon, concerning.

REMAIK 1. Prepositions are so called, because they are generally placed before the noun or pronoun whose relation they express. They sometimes, however, stand after it. Cf. § 279, 10.

REM. 2. A is used only before consonants: \$db\$ before vowels, and frequently before consonants, though rarely before labels: \$db\$ is obsolete, except in the phrase \$db\$ it.

E is used only before consonants, ex before both vowels and consonants.

REM. 3. Versüs, which follows its noun, (cf. § 235, R. 3), usque, and exadersüs (-um), sometimes take an accusative, simil and próxil, an ablative, and are then by some called prepositions. Secüs, with an accusative, occurs in Pliny and Cato.

REM. 4. Many of the prepositions, especially those which denote place, are also used as adverbs. Cf. § 191.

# Signification and Use of certain Prepositions.

REM. 5. (a.) Ad denotes direction, and answers to the questions Whither? and Till when? as, Fenio ad te. Sophoules of summans succeiven traggelius foit. Cic. It also denotes a fixed time; as, od hörma, at the hour; ad tempus alquid fixere,—at the right time. But sometimes ad tempus denotes for a time. Sometimes, also, ad denotes the approach of time; as, ad livem, od respectively, and the continue, and of prime signar civis profetus, at the first sign of Spring.

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(b.) In answer to the question Where? ād signifies 'near' a place; as, ād urbem esse; ād portas urbis; pugna navālis ād Tenēdum. It is used like n, 'at,' in such phrases as ād adem Bellönac, or, without adem, ād Opis; negotium habēre ād portum.—With numerals it may be rendered 'to the amount of 'or 'nearly'; as, ād ducentos. It is also used like circiter without any case; as, Occiss ād hominum millibus quatuor.—The phrase omnes ād ūnum signifies, 'all without exception.' every one.'

(c.) Ad often denotes an object or purpose, and hence comes its signification of in respect to '; as, hômo âd labôres belli impiger. It is also used in figurative relations to denote a model, standard, or object of comparison, where we say 'according to,' or 'in comparison with'; as, âd môdum, âd efficien, âd similitudinem, âd speciem alicijus rei; âd normam, etc. âd voluntâtem alicijus faceire aliquid. Ad verbum signifies, 'word for word'; nihil âd harc rem, 'nothing in

comparison with this thing.'

REm. 6. A pūd expresses nearness to, and was primarily used of persons as ad was applied to things. Apūd also denotes rest, and ād direction, motion, etc. Hence it signifies 'weith,' both literally and figuratively. With names of places it signifies 'nearl,' like ād; as, Māle puņnātun est āpād Caudium. But in early writers, āpād is used for tn; as, Augustas āpād urbem Nōlam extinctus est,—at Nola.—With me, te, sc, or the name of a person, it signifies 'at the house' or 'dwelling of'; as, Fuisti āpād Lecann iliā note.—Before appellatives of persons having authority in regard to any matter, it is translated 'before,' in the presence of'; as, āpād Judices, āpād pratōrem, āpād popālum.—It is also used with names of authors, instead of in with the name of their works; as, Apād Xeno-phontem, but we cannot say in Xenophonte.

REM. 7. Adversüs, contrā, and  $erg\bar{a}$  signify 'opposite to.' Contrā denotes hostility, like our 'against';  $erg\bar{a}$ , a friendly disposition, 'towards'; and adversūs is used in either sense. But  $erg\bar{a}$  sometimes occurs in a hostile sense.

Rem. 8.  $Intr\bar{a}$  signifies 'within,' in regard both to time and place. In regard to place it is used in answer to both questions Where? and Whither? It denotes time either as an entire period, when it is equivalent to 'during,' or as 'unfinished,' when it corresponds with 'under,' or 'before the expiration of.'

Rem. 9.  $P \, \bar{e} r$ , denoting place, signifies, 'through,' and also 'in,' in the sense of 'throughout.'—With the accusative of persons it signifies 'through,' by the instrumentality of.' It often expresses the manner; as,  $p \bar{e} r \, li \bar{e} r a s$ , by letter;  $p \bar{e} r \, iu \mu r a m$ ,  $p \bar{e} r \, s c \bar{e} l u s$ , with injustice, criminally;  $p \bar{e} r \, ir a m$ , from or in anger;  $p \bar{e} r \, s \, iu a l u s$ ,  $p \bar{e} r \, c \, c \, u s \, a m$ , under the pretext;  $p \bar{e} r \, c \, c \, c \, a \, s \, c \, a \, c$ , on the occasion;  $p \bar{e} r \, r \, l \, i \, u \, d \, m$ , in a ridiculous manner.—It sometimes signifies 'on account of'; as,  $p \bar{e} r \, v \, u \, l \, c \, u \, d \, c$ , and illness.— $P \bar{e} r \, m \, u \, l \, u \, c$ , are as I am concerned.

Rem. 10. A or \$\alpha b\$, denoting time, is used with nouns, both abstract and concrete, with the same general meaning; as, \$\alpha printa \alpha idet, \$\alpha b\$ ineunte atôte, \$\alpha b\$ intito etails, \$\alpha b\$ infamilia, \$\alpha puerit\bar{a}\$, \$\alpha b\$ are infamilia, \$\alpha b\$ principio, \$\alpha printa\bar{a}\$, \$\alpha b\$ infamilia, \$\alpha b\$ principio, \$\alpha printa\bar{a}\$, \$\alpha b\$ both \$\alpha b\$ infamilia, \$\alpha b\$ principio, \$\alpha printa\bar{a}\$, \$\alpha b\$ both \$\alpha b\$ infamilia, \$\alpha

REM. 11. Cum is used not only to designate accompanying persons but also accompanying circumstances; as, cum aliquo ire; hostes cum detrimento sunt

depulsi. It signifies also 'in,' i. e. 'dressed in'; as, cum tunica pulla sedère. With verbs implying hostility, it signifies 'with,' in the sense of 'against'; as, cum aliquo bellum gerère; cum aliquo queri, to complain of or against.

Rem. 12. Dê commonly signifies 'concerning,' 'about.' Hence traditur dê Homêro is very different from traditur âb Homêro; in the former, Homer is the object, in the latter the agent.—In the epistodry style, when a new subject is touched upon, dê signifies 'in regard to,' 'as respects'; as, dê frûtre, con' julo die asse, ut semper volu.—It often signifies 'down from'; and also 'of,' in a partitive sense; as, bômo dễ piche, tous dễ populo.—From its partitive signification arises its use in denoting time; as, in continum dễ noate ventre, l. e. even by night, or spending a part of the night in coming; hence multû dễ noate, media dễ noate, 'in the deldle of the night.'—In other cases, also, it is used for ex or âb; as, Audivi hoc dễ parente meo puer. Cic.; especially in connection with emêre, meri âri, conducêre. Triumphum agêre dễ Gallis and ex Gallis are used indiscriminately—Sometimes, like sêundum, it signifies 'in accordance with,' 'after'; as, dê consilio meo:—sometimes it denotes the manner of an action; as, dêmo, dê integro, aftesh; dê improvêso, unexpectedly; dễ industria, purposely:—quâ dê re, quâ dê causă, quibus dê causis, for which reason or reasons.

REM. 13. Ex., 'from,' 'ont of.' Ex êquo pugnăre, to fight on horseback; so ex itinêre scribère: ex adverso, è regiõne, opposite; ex omm parte, in or from all parts.—Ex vino or ex âquã coquêre or bibêre, i. e. 'with wine,' etc. are medical expressions.—It sometimes denotes manner; is, ex animo laudăre, to praise heartily; ex sententià and ex roluntâte, according to one's wish.—It is also, like dê, used in a partitive sense; as, ânus ê plêbe, ânus ê multês.

Rem. 14. In, with the accusative, signifying 'to' or 'into,' denotes the point towards which motion proceeds; as, in adem ire; or the direction in which a thing extends; as, decem pedes in altitudinem, in height; so, also, it denotes figuratively the object towards which an action is directed, either with a friendly or a hostile design; as, amor in patriam, odium in malos cives, in milites liberalis : oratio in aliquem, a speech against some one .- It also denotes a purpose; as, pecunia data est in rem militarem. Pax data Philippo in has leges est, on these conditions. - With words denoting time, it expresses a predetermination of that time, like 'for'; as, invitare aliquem in posterum diem, for the following day. In diem vivere, to live only for the day; in futurum, in posterum, in reliquum, for the future; in aternum, in perpetuum, forever; in presens, for the present: with all these adjectives tempus may be supplied. In with singula, expressed or understood, denotes a distribution, and may be translated 'to,' 'tor,' 'on,' 'over.'—In singulas dies, or simply in dies, with comparatives and verbs denoting increase, signifies 'from day to day,'— In some phrases it denotes the manner of an action; as, servilen in modum, mīrum in modum; so in universum, in general; in commune, in common; in vicem, alternately, or, instead of; in alicujus locum aliquial petere, in the place, or, instead of.

REM. 15. In, with the ablative, signifies 'in,' 'on,' 'upon,' and answers to the question, Where? When a number or quantity is indicated, it signifies 'among,' and is equivalent to intir. It may sometimes be translated 'with,' or 'notwithstandine': as, In summa copia orationan, note time, calculated aquatit.—With nouns which by themselves denote time, such as secalium, annus, mensis, dies, nax, resper, etc., the time, in answer to the question When? is expressed by the simple ablative; but In is used with words which acquire the signification of time only by such connection; as, in considiat, in principio, in bello; but even with these in is sometimes omitted, but is usually retained in connection with the germud or grundive; as, in legendly, in legendly libris. In present, or in presentia, signifies at the present moment,' for the present.—Est in eo, ut aliquid fiat signifies that something is on the point of happening.

# PREPOSITIONS IN COMPOSITION.

- § 196. Most of the prepositions are used also in forming compound words. In composition, they may be considered either in reference to their form, or their force.
- I. (a.) Prepositions in composition sometimes retain their final consonants, and sometimes change them, to adapt them to the sounds of the initial consonants of the words with which they are compounded. In some words, both forms are in use; in others, the final consonant or consonants are omitted.
- 1. A, in composition, is used before m and v; as, āmôveo, āvello, and some-times before f in āfui and āföre, for ābfui and abföre. Ab is used before vowels, and before d, f, h, j, d, n, v, and s; as, abjūro, abrögo, etc. Abs occurs only before c, g, and t; as, abscondo, abseque, abstineo. In aspello, aspernor, and asporto, the b of ubs is dropped; in auf ero and aufyojo, it is changed into u.
- 2. Ad remains unchanged before vowels and before b, d, h, m, v. It often changes d into c, f, g, l, n, p, r, s, t, before those letters respectively; as, accedo, affero, aggredor, alligo, amitor, appōno, arrigo, assignor, attotlo. Its d is usually omitted before s followed by a consonant, and before gn; as, aspergo, aspicio, agmosco, agnatius. Before q, the d is changed into c; as, acquire,
- 3. Ante remains unchanged, except in anticipo and antisto, where it changes e to i; but antesto also occurs.
- 4. Circum in composition remains unchanged, only in circumeo and its derivatives the m is often dropped; as, circueo, circuitus, etc.
- 5. Cum (in composition, com), retains m before b, m, p; as, combibo, comitto, compono: before l, m, r, its m is changed into those letters respectively; as, colligo, comitor, corripio: before other consonants, it becomes n; as, conducto, conjuago. Before a vowel, gn or h, m is commonly omitted; as, cocopto, copnoso, coholato; but it is sometimes retained; as, conidato, comes, comitor. In côgo and côgito a contraction also takes place; as, côugo, côgo, etc. In combira, b is inserted.
- 6. Ex is prefixed to vowels, and to c, h, p, q, s, t, as, exo, exigo, excurro, exhiboo, expêdio. Before f, x is assimilated, and also rarely becomes  $e_i$  as, effect, or effero. S after x is often omitted; as, exôquor, for exsequor; in excidum (from exscindo), s is regularly dropped. E is prefixed to the other consonants; as, bblo, elideo, except in eclex. Before these however, with the exception of n and r, ex is sometimes used; as, exmôveo. E is sometimes used before  $p_i$  as, èpôtio.
- 7. In remains unchanged before a vowel. Before b, m, p, it changes n into m; as, induo, inmitto, impôno: before l and r, n is assimilated; as, illigo, irrêtio: before l and l is omitted; as, ignārus. Before the other consonants in is unchanged. In some compounds, in retains l before a vowel, from an ancient form indu; as, indigéna, indigeo, indolesco. So anciently induperator, for imperator.
- 8. Inter remains unchanged, except in intelligo and its derivatives, in which r before l is assimilated.
- 9. Ob remains unchanged before vowels and generally before consonants. Its b is assimilated before c, f, g, p; as, occurro, officio, opgannia, oppēto. In ômitto, b is dropped. An ancient form obs, analagous to abs for ab, is implied in obsolesco, from the simple verb oleo, and in ostendo, for obstendo.
- 10. Per is unchanged in composition, except in pellicio and sometimes in pelliceo, in which r is assimilated before l. In  $p\bar{e}j\bar{e}ro$ , r is dropped.
- 11. Post remains unchanged, except in pomarium and pomeridianus, in which st is dropped.

12. Pro and proter in composition remain unchanged, except that pro is shortened before a vowel. Cf. § 283, II. Exc. 1.

13. Prô has sometimes its vowel shortened, (cf. § 285, 2, Exc. 5) and, to avoid hiatus, it sometimes takes d before a vowel; as, prôdeo, prôdesse, prôdeyo. Before verbs beginning with r and l, pro sometimes becomes por and pot; as,

porrigo, polliceor.

- 14. Sāb in composition remains unchanged before a vowel and before b, d, p, l, n, s, t, v. Before c, f, g, m, p, r, its b is regularly assimilated; as, succido, suffero, suggéro, sumoèce, suppheo, surripio. Before c, p, and t, it sometimes takes the form sus from subs, analogous to abs and obs; as, suscipio, suspendo, sustollo: b is omitted before s, followed by a consonant; as, suspicio.
  - Subter and super in composition remain unchanged.
- 16. Trans remains unchanged before a vowel. It omits s before s; as, transcendo: in trādo, trādūco, trājīcio, and trāno, ns is commonly omitted.
- (b.) The following words are ealled inseparable prepositions, because they are found only in composition:—

Ambi or amb, (Greek  $\mathring{a}\mu \varphi i$ ), around, about. Red or re, again, back. Ve, not. Dis or di, asunder. Ve, not.

- Amb is always used before a vowel; as, ambāyes, ambarrālis, ambēdo, ambigo, ambio, ambāva; except ampulla, âmicro, and âmbilo. Before consonants it has the forms ambi; as, ambelava, ambifavium, ambreium: am; as, amplector, ampāto; or an; as, anceps, anfractus, anquiro.
- 2. Dis is prefixed to words beginning with c, p, q, s before a vowel, t, and b; as, discatio, dispôno, dispôno, distendo, dishiosco: but discrtus is formed from dissico; before f, s is changed into f; as, differo: in dirimo, and diribbo (from dishidoco), s becomes r. Di is prefixed to the other consonants, and to s when followed by a consonant; as, didaco, dimitto, dishiquo, dispicio. But both dis and di are used before j; as, disjunyo, dijādico, and before r in rumpo.
- 3. Red is used before a vowel or h: re before a consonant; as, reblimo, relaco, relative, reblino, relaco, relative, relative, relative, relative. But red is used before do; as, relativ. The connecting vowel i is found in relativities; and in the poetical forms relligio, relligine, and sometimes in recetto the d is assimilated. In later writers re is sometimes found before a vowel or h.
- 4. Sē and vē are prefixed without change; as, sēcēdo, sēcūrus; vēgrandis, vēcors.
- § 197. II. Prepositions in composition usually add their own signification to that of the word with which they are united; but sometimes they give to the compound a meaning different from that of its simples. The following are their most common significations:—
- A, or ab, away, from, down; entirely; un-. With verbs it denotes removal, disappearance, absence; as, antire, abator, absum. With adjectives it denotes absence, privation; as, amens, absome.
- 2. Ad, to, toward; at, by. In composition with verbs \(\tilde{a}\)d denotes (a) motion to, (not into), as, acc\(\tilde{a}\)d; (b) addition, as, ascr\(\tilde{b}\)d; (c) repetition and hence intensity, as, acc\(\tilde{d}\)d; (f) at, in consequence of, as, arrigo. It is sometimes augmentative, rarely incheative.
  - 3. Ambi, around, about, on both sides.
  - 4. Circum, around, about, on all sides.
- 5. Com or con, together, entire'y. In composition with verbs it denotes (a) union, as, concurro, conside; (b) completeness, as, combiro, conficio; (c) with effort, as, confico, conclamo; (d) in hurmony, as, consono, consentio; (e) on or over, like the English  $be_{\tau}$ , as, collino, to besmear.

6. Contra, against, opposite.

7. Dī, off, away, through, over, down; entirely; very, extremely. With verbs de denotes (a) down; as, demitto; (b) removal; as, detondeo; (c) absence; as, desum, dehabeo; (d) prerention; as, debortor; (e) infriently feeling; as, despico, dérideo.—With adjectives de denotes (a) down; as, declivis; (b) without; as, demens.

8. Dis, asunder, apart, in pieces, in two; dis-, un-; very greatly. With verbs dis denotes (a) division; as, divido, dilabor; (b) difference; as, discrepo, dissentio; (c) the reverse of the simple notion; as, displice, diffico; (d) intensity; as, dilando.—With adjectives dis denotes difference; as, discolor, discors.

9. E, or ex, ont, forth, away, upward, without, -less, an-: utterly, completely, very. With verbs it denotes (a) out; as, exco, eximo, claboro; (b) removal of something; as, edormio; (r) publicity; as, edico; (d) ascent; as, exsisto; (e) completeness; as, edisco, exiro; (f) with denominative verbs, charge of character; as, explo, effero (are); (g) removal of what is expressed by the noun whence the verb is derived; as enodo; (h) the reversal of the fundamental idea; as, explico; (i) distance; as, exandio.—With adjectives formed from substantives it denotes absence; as, exsomnis.

10. In, with verbs, signifies in, on, at; into, against; as, inhábito, induo, ingimo, inco, illido. With adjectives, un-, in-, il-, il-, ir-, not; as, ignatus, inhospitalis, innonvialis. Some of its compounds have contrary significations, according as they are participles or adjectives; as, intectus, part., covered, adj., uncovered.

11. Inter, between, among, at intervals.

Ob, with verbs, signifies to, towards; as, ôbeo, ostendo; against; as, ôbluctor, obnuntio; at, before; as, ôbumbâlo, obrersor; upon; as, occulco; over; as, obdâto.

13. Per, with verbs, denotes, through, thoroughly, perfectly, quite; as, perduo, perficio, perdo: with adjectives, through, very; as, pernox, perdevis.

14. Post, after, behind.

15. Pree in composition with verbs denotes (a) before in place; as, premitto; (b) by or past; as, predicto; (c) nemannt; as pression, predicto; (d) superiority; as, pressio; (e) before in time; as, predicto, pracerpo; at the extremity; as, precio.—With adjectives, (a) before in place or time; as, praceps, praescius; (b) erry; as, preadints, precipins.

16. Prater, past, by, beyond, besides.

17. Prō, before, forward, forth, away, down; for; openly; as, prōlūdo, por-rigo, prōterreo, prōtēro, prōtēro, prōtēro.

 Rē, again, against, back, re-, un-, away; greatly; as, rēflēresco, rēpendo, rēflērio, rēfligo, rēcondo.

Sē, without, aside, apart; as, sēcūro, sēpēno, sēcēdo, sēcūrus.

20. Sāb, up, from below upwards, under. With verbs sāb also signifies (a) assistume; as, subvenio; (b) succession; as, succino; (c) in place of; as, sufficio; (d) near; as, subsum; (c) secretly, chandestinely; as, surripio, subdice; (f) somewhat, a little; as, subrideo, sibaccino.—With adjectives it signifies, slightly, rather; as, subobscrines, subabsumus, subabsumus, subabsumus,

21. Subter, beneath, under, from under, secretly, privately.

22. Super, above, over, left over, remaining, super-; as, supersedeo, supersum, superstes, supervacaneus.

23. Trans, over, across, through; beyond; as, trado, transeo, transfigo, transalpinus.

Vē, not, without; very; as, vēgrandis, vēcors; vēpallidus.

REMARK. In composition the preposition seems often to add nothing to the signification of the word with which it is compounded.

# CONJUNCTIONS.

§ 198. A conjunction is a particle which connects words or propositions.

The most usual conjunctions are,

 $\overline{a}_{c}$  and, as; than. ac si, as if. aden, so that, so. anne, whether. annon, whether or not. antequam, before. at, ast, but. at enim, but indeed. atqui. but. attamen, but yet. aut, either, or. aut ... aut, cither ... er. autem, but. ceterum, but, however. cen, as, like as, as if. eum or quum, since. donée, as long as, until. dum, provided, while, as long as, until. dummodo, if but, if only. enimvero, in very deed. ěnim, etenim, for. eo, therefore. equidem, indeed. ergo, therefore. čt, and. ět...ět 1 both...and; čt...quě, } as well...as. ět...ni que or něc, on the one hand, but not on the other. čtiam, also. čtiamsi, i although, etsi, i though. iccirco, ) Ideo. therefore. ĭgĭtŭr, Itaque. licet, though, although. unodo, provided. Mam, namque, for.

nē, lest, that not. -ne, whether. neque or nec, neither, nor. nique...nique, neither, něe...née, neque...nec, ...nor. nee...neque, necné, or not. neque, neither, nor. něquě or něc...ět, / not nĕquĕ or nĕc...quč,∫ on the one hand, but on the neve or neu, nor, and not. nēve...nēve, † neither... neu...ncu, 27(1)\*. nī, nīsī, unless. num, whether. prætit, in comparison with. prout, according as, just as, as. proinde, hence, therefore. proptered, therefore, for that reason. postquam, after, since. priusquam, before. quam, as, than. quamvis, although. quando, quandoquidem, wherens, since. quamquam, although. quapropter, quare, quamobrem, wherefore. anocirca, quantumvis, although, quamlibet, however. quamlibet, quasi, as if, just as. -que, and. -quē...ēt, } both...and; -quē...-quē, } as well...as. quià, because. quin, but that, that not.

quò, in order that, quoad, as long as, until. quod, because, but. quodsi, but if. quominus, Heat not. quoniam, since, because. quěquě, also. quum or cum, when, since, because. quum...tum, both ... and. sed, but. sicut. | so as, just as, as. sī, if. sī modo, if only. simul, as soon sīmūlāc (-atquě) 🕻 🐠 . sin, but if, if however. sive or seu, or if. sīvē...sīvē, | whether ... or. scu...scu, siquidem, if indeed, since. tamen, however, still. tametsi, although. tamquam, as if. tum...tum, both ... and. undě, vhence. ŭt, i that, as that, so that, ŭti, i to the end that. ŭt sī, as if. utruin, whether. vel, either, or. věl...věl, either...or. vėlūt, | eren as, just as, vėlūtī, | like as. vero, truly, but indeed. vērum, but. vēruntāmēn, yet, notwithstanding. vērum-čnim vēro, but indeed.

Conjunctions, according to their different uses, are divided into two general classes,—coordinate and subordinate.

quippě, because.

I. Coordinate conjunctions, are such as join coordinate or similar constructions; as,

Luan et stellee fulgibant, The moon and the stars were shining. Concident venti, fugiuntque nabes. The winds subside, and the clouds disperse. Diffictle facta est, sed combor tamen, It is difficult to accomplish, but still I will try.

Coordinate conjunctions include the following subdivisions, viz. copulative, disjunctive, adversative, illative, and most of the causal conjunctions.

II. Subordinate conjunctions are such as join dissimilar constructions; as,

Edo, ut vivam, I eat that I may live. Pyrrhus rex in itiněre incidit in canem, qui interfecti hominis corpus custodiébat. Mergi pullos in aquam jussit, ut biběrent, quoniam esse nollent.

Subordinate conjunctions include all those connectives which unite subordinate or dependent clauses. These are the concessive, illative, final, conditional, interrogative, and temporal conjunctions, and the causals quod, quum, quoniam, etc. To these may be added also the relatives whether pronouns, adjectives, or adverbs.

The following paragraphs contain a specification of the several conjunctions comprised in each of the preceding subdivisions, and remarks respecting their particular import and use as connectives.

1. COPULATIVE conjunctions connect things that are to be considered jointly; as, ět, āc, atquě, the enclitic quě, which, combined with the negation belonging to the verb, becomes neque or nec, and, the negation being doubled, něc non or něquě non, it becomes again affirmative and equivalent to ět. To these are to be added etiam and quoque, with the adverbials item and ĭtīdem.

Remark. (a.) Et and que differ in this, et connects things which are conceived as different, and que adds what belongs to, or naturally flows from them. Et, therefore, is copulative and que adjunctive. Hence, in an enumeration of words, que frequently connects the last of the series, and by its means the preceding idea is extended without the addition of any thing which is generically different. In connecting propositions que denotes a consequence, and is equivalent to 'and therefore.'

(b.) Ac never stands before vowels, atque chiefly before vowels, but also before consonants.—Atque, being formed of ad and que, properly signifies 'and also,' 'and in addition,' thus putting things on an equality, but giving emphasis to the latter. In the beginning of a proposition, which is explanatory of that which precedes, atque or ac introduces a thing with great weight, and may be rendered 'now'; and in answers; as, Cognostine hos versus? Ac memoriter, it is rendered 'yes, and that.' Ac being an abridged form of atque loses somewhat of its power in connecting single words, and its use alternates with that of et; it is preferred in subdivisions, whereas the main propositions are con-

nected by et.

(c.) Neque, compounded of the ancient ne for non and que, is used for et non. Et non itself is used, when only one idea or one word of a proposition is to be negatived; as, patior et non moleste fero; and also when our 'and not' is used for 'and not rather' to correct an improper supposition; as, Si quam Rubrius injuriam suo nomine ac non impulsu tuo fecisset. Cic. Et non is commonly found also in the second clause of a sentence when et precedes, but neave, also, is often used in this case. Néc non or neque non, in classical prose, is not used like et to connect nouns, but only to join propositions, and the two words are separated. In later writers, however, they are not separated and are equivalent to ět.

(d.) Elium has a wider extent than quòqué, for it contains the idea of our even, and it also adds a new circumstance, whereas quòqué denotes the addition of a thing of a similar kind. Hence élium, is properly used to connect sentences, while quoque refers to a single word. Etiam signifies 'and further,' quoque', 'and so,' also.' Quoque' always follows the word to which it refers étiam in similar cases is usually placed before it, but when it connects propositions its place is arbitrary. Et, too, in classical proce, is sometimes used in the sense of 'also.' So often is nom nido—sed'et, 'not only—but also,' or 'but

even.'

(e.) Copulative conjunctions are often repeated in the sense of 'both—and,' as well—as,' 'not only—but also' \( k = \tilde{t} \) is of common occurrence; so, in later writers, but rarely in Cicero, \( it = qu\tilde{t} \); \( qu\tilde{t} = \tilde{t} \) is of common occurrence; so, in later writers, but rarely in Cicero, \( it = qu\tilde{t} \); \( qu\tilde{t} = \tilde{t} \) connect single words, but not in Cicero; \( qu\tilde{t} = -qu\tilde{t} \), \( qu\tilde{t} = \tilde{t} \) connected in English by 'neither—nor,' and in Latin by \( niqu\tilde{t} = \tilde{t} \) \( niqu\tilde{t} = \tilde{t} \) \( ni\tilde{t} = \tilde{t} \) \(

2. Disjunctive conjunctions connect things that are to be considered separately: as and vel, the enclitic vel and sine or sen

rately; as, aut,  $v \in l$ , the enclitic  $v \in$ , and  $s l v \in$  or  $s \in u$ . REMARK, (a) Aut and v l d differ in this; aut indicates a difference of the object, v l, a difference of expression, i. e. aut is objective, v l, a higherine. Fill is connected with the verb v e l l e, and is generally repeated,  $v l l - v \ell l$ , choose this or choose this, and the single v l is used by Cicero only to correct a preceding expression, and commonly combined with d t e am, p s t l u e am, so enhances the signification of the signification of the adverb, 'even,' and so enhances the signification of the word modified by it; as, Q u u m Sophole l e such expression. Cf. 4127, 4. By means of its derivation from v l l e l that as also, the signification of 'for example' or 'to take a case,' for which v l l u is more frequently used.—(b) l v l e the apocopated v l l leaves the choice free between two or more things, and in

later but good prose vel is used in the same manner.

(c.) Sieë commonly retains the meaning of si, and is then the same as rel si, but sometimes loses it, and is then equivalent to rel, denoting a difference of name; as, Vocabilum sive appellutio. Quint. The form seu is rarely used by Cicero except in the combination seu potius.—(d.) Aut and ré serve to continue the negation in negative sentences, where we use 'nor'; as, non-aud, where non-mèqué also may be used. They are used also in negative questions; as, Num leges nostrus moresté nôvil? Cic.; and after comparatives; as, Doctrina paulo aspèrior, quam veritus aut nature pariatur. Cic. It is only when both ideas are to be united into one that a copulative is used instead of aut and re-(e.) 'Either—or' is expressed in Latin by aud—aud, denoting an opposition between two things, one of which excludes the other, or by rel—vel, denoting that the opposition is immaterial in respect to the result, so that the one need not exclude the other; as, Vei imperatiore vel milite me utimini. Sall.—Siré-siré is the same as rel si—rei si, and retains the meaning of vel—rel. If nouns only are opposed to each other, an uncertainty is expressed as to how a thing is to be called; as, Critum leges, quas sive dapiter sive Minos sanzit; i. e. I do not know whether I am to say Jupiter or Minos.

3. COMPARATUE conjunctions express a comparison. These are, it or iti, sicit,  $v \ell l it$ , p r o it, p r o it, p r o it, q r o it, and q r o it, q r o

nify 'as.'

ÎEMARK. Ac and atquë signify 'ns' or 'than' after adverbs and adjectives which denote similarity or dissimilarity; as, aquë, juxtă, pār and pāritēr, pēriadē and proindē, prò cō, similis and similiter, dissimilis, tātis, tōtidem, dius and dittēr, contrā, sētās, contrārius.—Quam is rarely used after these words, except when a negative particle is joined with adius; as, Virtus nihil aliad est, quam, etc.; and ēt and quē do not occur in this connection.—Ac is used for quam, after comparatives, in poetry and occasionally by late prose writers; as, Artins atque hedēra. Hor. hisāniis ac sī. ld.

4. Concessive conjunctions express a concession, with the general signification 'although.' These are etsi, étiamsi, tâmetsi, or tâmênetsi, quamquam, quumris, quantumris, quamlibét, licêt, út in the sense of even it or 'although,' and quum when it signifies 'although.'

REMARK. Tâmen and other particles signifying 'yet,' 'still,' are the correlatives of the concessive conjunctions; as, Ut desint vives, tamen est laudanda

roluntas. Cvid. The adverb quidem becomes a concessive conjunction, when it is used to connect propositions and is followed by sed .- Quanquam, in absolute sentences, sometimes refers to something preceding, which it limits and partly nullifies; as, Quamquam quid loquor? Yet why do I speak?

5. CONDITIONAL conjunctions express a condition, their fundamental signification being 'if.' These are sī, sīn, nīsī or nī, sī modo, dummodo, 'if only,' 'if but,' (for which dum and modo are also used alone), dummodo nē, or simply modo nē or dumnē.

Remark. (a.) In order to indicate the connection with a preceding proposition, the relative quod, which in such case loses its signification as a pronoun, and may be rendered, 'nay,' 'now,' 'and,' or 'then,' is frequently put before si and sometimes before nisi and elsi, so that quods; may be regarded as one word, signifying 'now if,' 'but if,' or 'if then.' It serves especially to introduce something assumed as true, from which further inferences may be drawn. It sometimes signifies 'although.' Quodnisi signifies 'if then—not,' and quodetsī, 'nay, even if.' Quod is found also before quum, ubi, quia, quoniam, ne, utinam, and even before the relative pronoun.

(b.) Ni and nisi limit a statement by introducing an exception, and thus differ from sī non, which introduces a negative case. It is often immaterial whether nisi or si non is used, but the difference is still essential. Si non is used when single words are opposed to one another, and in this case sī minus may be used instead of si non.—If after an affirmative proposition its negative opposite is added without a verb, our 'but if not' is commonly expressed in prose by si minus or sin minus or sin aliter; as, Educ tecum etiam omnes tuos; si mīnus, quam plurimos. Cic.; rarely by sī non.

6. ILLATIVE conjunctions express an inference or conclusion, with the general signification of 'therefore,' 'consequently.' These are ergo, igitur, itaque, eo, ideo, iccirco, proinde, propterea, and the relative conjunctions, quapropter, quare, quamobrem, quocirca, unde, 'wherefore.'

Remark. Ergo and igitur denote a logical inference.—Itaque, 'and thus,' expresses the relation of cause in facts.—*ldeo, iccirco*, and *propterea*, on this account, express the agreement between intention and action.—*Eō*, on this account, or for this purpose, is more frequently an adverb of place.—

Proinde, consequently, implies an exhortation.—Unde, whence, is properly an adverb of place.—Adeo, 'so that,' or simply 'so,' is also properly an adverb. Hinc, 'hence,' and inde, 'thence,' continue to be adverbs.

7. CAUSAL conjunctions express a cause or reason, with the general signification of 'for' and 'because.' These are nam, namque, enim, etenim, quia, quod, quoniam, quippe, quum, quando, quandoquidem, siquidem; and the adverbs nîmîrum, nempe, scilicet, and videlicet.

REMARK. (a.) Nam is used at the beginning of a proposition, enim, after the first or second word. Nam introduces an objective reason, and enim merely a subjective one. There is the same difference between namque and etenim. Namque, however, though constantly standing at the beginning of a proposi-tion in Cicero, Cæsar, and Nepos, is in later writers often put after the beginning. Enim in the sense of at enim or sed enim is sometimes, by comic writers, put at the beginning of a proposition.—Nam, čnim, and čtěnim are often used in the sense of 'namely,' or 'to wit,' to introduce an explanation of something going before. Nimirum, vidilitet, and seltete likewise answer to our namely or 'viz.' Nimirum, compounded of ni and mirum, and signifying 'a wonder in tot,' is used as a connective in the sense of 'undoubtedly' or 'surely,' and implies strong confidence in the truth of the proposition with which it is connected.—Videlicet and scilicet introduce an explanation, with this difference that vidélicet generally indicates the true, and scilicet a wrong explanation. Sometimes, however, nam, čnim, čtčnim, nīmīrum, and vidēlicēt are used in an ironical sense, and scīlicēt introduces a true reason.—Nempē, 'surely,' often assumes a sarcastic meaning when another person's concession is taken for the purpose of refuting him. - (b.) Quia and quod indicate a definite and conclusive reason, quoniam, (i. e. quum jam), a motive. - Ideo, iccirco, propterea quod, and quia, are used without any essential difference, except that quià introduces a more strict and logical reason, whereas quoniam, signifying now as, introduces important circumstances.—Quando, quandoquidem, and siquidem approach nearer to quonium than to quia, as they introduce only subjective reasons. Quandoquidem denotes a reason implied in a circumstance previously mentioned; siquidem, a reason implied in a concession. In siquidem the meaning of si is generally dropped, but it sometimes remains, and then si and quidem should be written as separate words; as, O fortunatam rempublicam, si quidem hanc sentinam ejecerit. Cic.— Quippe, with the relative pronoun or with quum, introduces a subjective reason. When used elliptically without a verb it signifies 'forsooth' or 'indeed.' Sometimes it is followed by a sentence with enim, and in this way gradually acquires the signification of nam.

8. Final conjunctions express a purpose, object, or result, with the signifi-

eation of 'in order that,' or 'in order that not.' These are  $\tilde{u}t$  or  $\tilde{u}t\tilde{t}i$ ,  $qu\tilde{o}$ ,  $n\tilde{e}$  or  $\tilde{u}t$   $n\tilde{e}$ ,  $n\tilde{e}v\tilde{e}$  or neu,  $qu\tilde{t}n$  and  $qu\tilde{o}min\tilde{u}s$ .

Remark. Ut, as a conjunction, indicates either a result or a purpose, 'so that,' and 'in order that.' When indicating a result, if a negative is added to it, it becomes ut  $n\tilde{o}n$ ; when indicating a purpose, if the negative is added, it, becomes  $n\bar{e}$  or  $\bar{u}t$   $n\bar{e}$ , but  $\bar{u}t$   $n\bar{e}n$  also is very rarely used for  $n\bar{e}$ .— $N\bar{e}v\bar{e}$  (i. e.  $v\bar{e}l$   $n\bar{e}$ ) signifies either 'or in order that not,' or 'and in order that not.' Ut  $n\bar{e}$  is a pleonasm, not differing perceptibly from no. It is used more frequently by Cicero than by other writers. Quố në for në occurs once in Horace.

9. Adversative conjunctions, express opposition, with the signification of but.' These are sed, autem, vērum, vēro, at (poetical ast), at enim, atquī, tamen, attamen, sedtamen, vēruntamen, at vēro,

(ěnim věro), věruměním, věrum, věro, cětěrum.

REMARK. (a.) Sed denotes a direct opposition, and interrupts the narrative or argument; autem marks a transition, and denotes at once a connection and an opposition. Porro, 'further,' denotes progression and transition but not opposition, except in later authors .- Verum has a similar relation to vero as sed to autem. Verum, while it denotes opposition, contains also an explanation. Vero connects things which are different, but denotes the point in favor of which the decision should be. It thus forms the transition to something more important, as in the phrase, Illud vero plane non est ferendum, i. e. that which I am about to mention. In affirmative answers vero is often added to the verb; as, Dasne? Do vēro. Hence, when the protosis supplies the place of a question, it is sometimes introduced into the apodosis merely to show that it contains an answer. Hence also vēro alone signifies 'yes,' like sānē, itā, and čtiam.—Enimvēro, 'yes, truly,' 'in truth,' does not denote opposition. It sometimes, like vēro, forms the transition to that which is most important. The compound verum enimvēro denotes the most emphatic opposition.

(b.) At denotes that that which is opposed is equivalent to that which precedes. It frequently follows st, in the sense of 'yet,' or 'at least'; as, etsi non sepientissimus, at amicissimus. It is especially used to denote objections whether of the speaker himself or of others. At enim introduces a reason for the objection implied in at .- By atqui, 'but still,' 'but yet,' or 'nevertheless,' we admit what precedes, but oppose something else to it; as, Magnum narras, vix credibile. Atqui sic habet. Hor. So, also, when that which is admitted, is made use of to prove the contrary. Finally, atqui is used in syllogisms, when a thing is assumed which had before been left undecided; in this case it does not denote a direct opposition of facts, and may be translated by 'now,' 'but,' 'but now.'—Citivum, properly 'as for the rest,' is often used by later writers for stall—Contra ea, in the scuse of 'on the other hand,' is used as a conjunction. So addo with a pronoun, when it may be translated 'just,' 'precisely,' 'even,'

'indeed,' or an intensive 'and.'

 Temporal conjunctions, express time. These are quum, quum primum, üt, üt primum, üb., postquam, antequam, und prius-quam, quando, simülae or simülatque, or simül alone, dum, vsqué dum, dönée, quoad. REMARK. Ut and ubi, as particles of time, signify 'when.' Dum, dönéc, and quond signify-either 'as long as,' or 'until.' Dum often precedes intered or interim, and both dum and donéc are often preceded by the adverbs usqué, usqué et or usqué adeo.

11. INTERROGATIVE conjunctions indicate a question. These are, num, utrum, ān, and the enclitic už. This, when attached to the three precoding particles, forming numnž, utrumnž, and annž, does not affect their meaning. With non it forms a special interrogative particle nonnž. To these add ez and žn, as they appear in ecquis, ecquando, and žnumquam, and numquid and ecquid, when used simply as interrogative particles.

REMARK. (a.) The interrogative particles have no distinct meaning by themselves in direct questions, but only serve to give to a proposition the form of a question. In direct speech the interrogative particles are sometimes omitted, but in indirect questions they are indispensable, except in the case of a double question, where the first particle is sometimes omitted.—Ecquid and numquid, as interrogative particles, have the meaning of num, quid in this case having no meaning, but they must be carefully distinguished from the interrogative pronouns ecquid and numquid. En, or when followed by a q, ee is, like num, nè, and àn, an interrogative particle, but is always prefixed to some other interrogative word.

(b.) In direct questions, num and its compounds numni, numnam, numquid, numquidnum, and the compounds with in or ec suppose that the answer will be no'; as. Num mutas me tam dementem fuisse! But ecquid is sometimes used in an affirmative sense. In general the negative sense of these particles does

not appear in indirect questions.

(c.) Në properly denotes simply a question, but it is used sometimes affirmatively and sometimes negatively. When në is attached, not to the principal verb but to some other word, a negative sense is produced; as, mene istad potatises fucère putas! Do you believe that I would have done that? The answer expected is 'no.' When attached to the principal verb në often gives the affirmative meaning, and the answer expected is 'yes.'—Nonnë is the sign of an affirmative question; as, Conis nonne lupo similis cst!—Urum, in accordance with its derivation from ûter, which of two, is used only in double questions whether consisting of two or more. It is sometimes accompanied by mê, which is usually separated from it by one or more words; as, Urum, taccamne an predicent! In later writers, however, utraunaë is united into one word. Në is rarely appended to interrogative adjectives, but examples of such use are sometimes found in poetry; as, uternê; quionë nulo; quantanë. In a few passages it is even attached to the relative pronoun.

(d.) An is not used as a sign of an indirect question before the silver age; when so used it answers to 'whether.' It is used by Ciccro exclusively in a second or opposite question, where we use 'or'; as, Si sitis, nihil interest utrum agaa sit, an vinuae; nee refert, utrum sit aureum produm, an vitueum, near an unanse conciva. Sen. In direct interrogations, when no interrogative clause precedes, anni, an vivo are likewise used in the sense of 'or,' that is in such a number that a preceding interrogation is supplied by the mind; as, Invitus te offendi, an putas me delectori leodendis hominibus? Here we may supply before an putas, etc. the sentence, 'Do you believe this?'—An, after a preceding question, is rendered by 'not,' and it then indicates that the answer cannot be doubtful; as, A rebus gerendis sencetus abstrikit. Quibus? An his, que gruntar juentiate ac viribus? Is it not from those kinds of business, which? etc. Here we may suppose adisne? to be supplied before an his? Is it from other kinds of business, or from those? etc. Such questions may be introduced by nonné, but without allusion to an opposite question, which is implied in an.

(e.) To the rule that ān, in indirect questions, is used exclusively to indicate a second or opposite question, there is one great exception, for it is employed in single indirect questions after such expressions as dublio, dubium est, incertum est; delibbro, hastle, and especially after nescio or hand seio, all of which denote uncertainty, but with an inclination to the affirmative; as, Si per se givins sine

fortune ponderands sit, dubtio an hune primum omnium ponam, If virtue is to be estimated without reference to its success, I ann not certain whether I should not prefer this man to all others. Nep. It is not Latin to say dubtio annon for dubtio an.—Nessio an, or hand si on a new used quite in the sense of 'perhaps,' so that they are followed by the negatives nullus, nemo, numquam, instead of ullus, gaisquam and unquam. When the principal verb is omitted, an is often used in the sense of auxi, us, Themistonles, quant et Summides, an quis alias, artem memorius politicerctur, etc. In such cases in certain est is understood, and in Tacitus is often supplied.—The conjunction as is sometimes used in indirect interrogations instead of num, like the Greek si, and it is so used by Cicero after the verb expérior.

Note 1. The conjunctions -ne, -que, -ve, are not used alone, but are always

affixed to some other word, and are hence called enclitics.

Note 2. Some words here classed with conjunctions are also used as adverbs, and many classed as adverbs are likewise conjunctions; that is, they at the same time qualify verbs, etc., and connect propositions; as, Celèris in rebus, quam venit calamitus, tum detrimentum accipitur, in other concerns, when mis-

fortune comes, then damage is received.

Note 3. Conjunctions, like adverbs, are variously compounded with other parts of speech, and with each other; as, atque, (i. e. adque), it circo or id broad, (i. e. id-circo), ideo, nonque, etc. In some, compounded of an adverb and a conjunction, each of the simple words retains its meaning, and properly belongs to its own class; as, etiam (et jam) and now; itaque, and so; neque or nec, and not.

## INTERJECTIONS.

§ 199. An interjection is a particle used in exclamation, and expressing some emotion of the mind.

The most usual interjections are,

āh! ah! alus! hem! oho! indeed! well! hah! alas! alack! ha! aha! oh! haha! heu! oh! ah! alas! apage! away! begone! heus! ho! ho there! hark! halloa! atat! or atatte! oh! ah! alas! lo! hui! hah! ho! oh! au! or han! oh! ah! io! ho! hurrah! huzzah! 5! o! oh! ah! eccě! lo! sec! behold! ěhem! ha! what! 5h! oh! o! ah! ēheu! ah! alas! ōhē! ho! halloa! ho there! ého! ehodum! ho! soho! ého! oho! aha! eiñ! or heiñ! ah! ah ha! indeed! oi! hoy! alas! ēn! lo! see! b:hold! papæ! strange oi: hon! auns:
pape! strange! wonderful!
plui! fish! fugh!
pluy! pish! tush!
pro! or proh! oh! ah!
st! his!! whis! hish! en! well done! braro! engë! well done! good! enax! } huzzah! hurrah! euœ! ha! hold! ho! tatre! so! strange! ha! ha! he! La! ha! væ! ah! alas! woe! vali! valia! ah! alas! oh! hei! ah! wo! alas!

REMARK 1. An interjection sometimes denotes several different emotions. Thus vah is used to express wonder, grief, joy, and anger.

Rem. 2. Oil or parts of speech may sometimes be regarded as interjections; when used as expressions of astonishment, midum, miserum, miserabile, nifus, when used as expressions of astonishment, grief, or horror; and matte and matti, as expressions of approbation. In like manner the adverbs me, profetto, cito, bene, belle; the verbs questo, priver, oro, observe, amado, age, agite, cito, bothes, (for si audies), sis, sallis, (for si vis and si vultis), agisis, agidum, and agite dum, and the interrogative quid? what? used as exclumations.

Ren. 2. With the interjections may also be classed the following invocations of the gods: hereides, hereie, hereie; or mehereides, mehereide, medius fillus, mecastor, ecastor, eceter, pol, elepol, equirine, per deum, per deum immortalen, per deos, per Jörem, pró (or próh) Jüpiter, pró di immortales, pró deum fidem, pró deum atque homenum fidem, pró deum immortalium (soil, film), etc.

# SYNTAX.

- § 200. I. Syntax treats of the construction of sentences.
- 2. A sentence is a thought expressed in words; as, Cănes latrant, The dogs bark.
  - 3. All sentences are either
  - (1.) DECLARATIVE; as, Venti spirant, The winds blow:-
  - (2.) INTERROGATIVE; as, Spirantne renti? Do the winds blow?-
- (3.) EXCLAMATORY; as, Quam vehëmenter spirant venti! How fiercely the winds blow!—or
  - (4.) IMPERATIVE; as, Venti, spīrāte, Blow, winds.
- 4. The mood of the verb in the first three classes of sentences is either the indicative or the subjunctive; in imperative sentences it is either the imperative or the subjunctive.
- 5. A sentence may consist either of one proposition or of two or more propositions connected together.

# PROPOSITIONS.

- § 201. I. A proposition consists of a subject and a predicate.
- 2. The subject of a proposition is that of which something is affirmed.
  - 3. The predicate is that which is affirmed of the subject.

Thus, in the proposition, Equus currit, The horse runs, equus is the subject and currit is the predicate.

Note. The word affirm, as here used, includes all the various significations of the verb, as expressed in the several moods.

- 4. Propositions are either principal or subordinate.
- 5. A principal proposition is one which makes complete sense by itself; as,

Phocion fuit perpetuo pauper, quum ditissimus esse posset, Phocion was always poor, though he might have been very rich.

A subordinate proposition is one which, by means of a sabordinate conjunction, is made to depend upon or limit some part of another proposition; as,

Phocion full perpetuo pauper, quam ditissimus esse posset, Placion was always poor, though he might have been very rich.

Subordinate propositions are used either as substantives, adjectives, or adverba, and are accordingly called substantive, adjective or adverbial propositions or clauses.

8. Substantive clauses are connected with the propositions on which they depend by means of the final conjunctions ut, ne, qua, quin, etc., sometimes by quad, and, in clauses containing an indirect question, by interrogative pronouns, adjectives, adverbs and conjunctions. See §§ 262 and 285.

REMARK. A dependent substantive clause often takes the form of the accusative with the infinitive, and in that case has no connective; as, Gaudeo te valere.

Adjective clauses are connected by means of relatives, both pronouns and
pronominal adjectives; as, qui, quadis, quactus, etc. Adverbial clauses are connected either by relative adverbs of place and time, (§ 191, R. 1, (b.), or by
temporal, conditional, concessive, comparative, and sometimes by causal conjunctions.

10. A sentence consisting of one proposition is called a simple sentence; as,

Cădunt folia, The leaves fall. Semirămis Bubylonem condulit.

 A sentence consisting of a principal and one or more subordinate propositions is called a complex sentence; as,

Qui fit, at no contentus vivat? How happens it, that no one lives content? Quis ego sim, me rogitas, You ask me, who I am.

12. A sentence consisting of two or more principal propositions, either alone or in connection with one or more subordinate propositions, is called a *compound* sentence; as,

Spirant venti et cădunt folia, The winds blow, and the leaves fall.

13. The propositions composing a complex or a compound sentence are called its members or clauses; the principal proposition is called the leading clause, its subject, the leading subject, and its verb, the leading verb.

#### SUBJECT.

§ 202. 1. The subject also is either simple, complex, or compound.

2. The simple subject, which is also called the gramma ical subject, is either a noun or some word standing for a noun; as,

Aves rôlant, Birds fly. Tu lègis, Thou rendest. A est rôcâlis, A is a vowel. Mentiri est turpe, To lie is base.

3. The complex subject, called also the *logical* subject, consists of the simple subject with its modifications; as,

Conscientia bêne actæ vitæ est jiu andissima, The conscientses of a well spent  $b^*v$  is very pleasant. Here conscientia is the grammatical, and conscientia bêne acte rise the complex, subject.

4. The compound subject consists of two or more simple or complex subjects to which a single predicate belongs; as,

Lūna et stellæ falgibant, The moon and stars were shining. Grammätice ac mūsicæ jandæ fairnat, Grammar and music were united. Semper hönos nomenque tuum laudesque mānābunt.

REMAIN. Words are said to modify or limit other words, when they serve to explain, describe, define, enlarge, restrict, or otherwise qualify their meaning.

5. Every sentence must contain a subject and a predicate, called its *principal* or *essential* parts: any sentence may also receive additions to these, called its *subordinate* parts.

# Complex or Modified Subject.

- 6. The complex subject is formed by adding other words to the simple subject. All additions to the subject, like the subject itself, are either simple, complex, or compound.
  - I. Simple additions. The subject may be medified by adding:-
  - 1. A single word :-
  - (1.) A noun in the same case; as,
- Nos consules desanus, We consuls are remiss. Mūcius augur multa narrāvit, Mucius the augur related many things.
- (2.) A noun or pronoun in an oblique case, modifying or limiting the subject; as,

Amor multitudinis commoviter. The love of the multitude is excited. Cura mei, Care for me. Viribus usus, Need of strength.

- (3.) An adjective, adjective pronoun, or participle; as,
- Fügd invida œtus, Envious tinc flies. Men måter est bönigna. Dücit agmina Penthösilöa fürens. Litöra scripta månet.
  - 2. A phrase consisting of a preposition and its ease; as,

Sopor in grāmīne. Oppida sīne præsīdio. Receptio ad te.

- 3. A dependent adjective clause introduced by qui, quālis, quantus, etc.; as,
- Lêve fit, quod bêne fertur, ônus, The burden, which is borne well, becomes fight. Litere, quas scripsisti, accepta sunt. U, qualis (ille) häberi vellet, tälis esset. Tunta est inter evs, quanta maxima esse potest, mõrum distantia.
  - II. Complex additions. The subject may be modified:-
  - 1. By a word to which other words are added.
- (1.) When the word to which other words are added is a noun or pronoun, it may be modified in any of the ways above mentioned.
  - (2.) When it is an adjective it may be modified :-
  - (a.) By an adverb either simple or modified; as,

Erat exspectatio valde magna. Prasidium non nimis firmum.

- (h.) By a noun in an oblique case; as,
- Major pietāte, Superior in pietų. Contentionis căpidus, Fond of contention. Patri similis, Like his father. Nadus membra. Jūvenes patre digni.

(c.) By an infinitive, a gerund, or a supine; as,

Insuetus vinci, Not accustomed to be conquered. Venandi stădiosus. Fond of hunting. Mirabile dictu, Wonderful to tell.

(d.) By a phrase consisting of a proposition and its case; as, Ridas in republica, Unskilled in civil affairs. Ab equitatu firmus. Celer in pagnanu. Prôms ad fidem.

(e.) By a subordinate clause; as,

Mélior est certa pax, quam spérâta victória, A certain peace is better than an expected rictory. Dábius sum, quid faciam.

- (3.) When it is a participle, it may be modified like a verb. See § 203.
- 2. By a phrase consisting of a preposition and its case to which other words are added; as,

De victoria Cæsaris fama perfertur, A report concerning Cæsar's rictory is brought.

REMARK 1. As the case following the preposition is that of a noun or pronoun, it may be modified like the subject in any of the foregoing ways.

REM. 2. The preposition itself may be modified by an adverb, or by a noun or adjective in an oblique case; as,

Longe ultra, Far beyond. Multo ante noctem, Long before night. Sexennio post Veios captos, Six years after the capture of Veii.

3. By a subordinate clause, to whose subject or predicate other words are added.

REMARK. These additions may be of the same form as those added to the principal subject or predicate of the sentence.

III. Compound additions. The subject may be modified:-

By two or more nouns in the same case as the subject, connected by a coördinate conjunction; as,

Consules, Brutus et Collatinus, The consuls, Brutus and Collatinus.

2. By two or more oblique cases of a noun or pronoun connected coördinately; as,

Vitæque necisque potestas. Periculorum et laborum incitamentum.

3. By two or more adjectives, adjective pronouns, or participles, connected coordinately; as,

Grave bellum perdiaturnumque. Animi teneri atque molles.

- 4. By two or more adjective clauses connected coördinately; as, Et qui fecere, et qui facta aliorum scripsere, multi laudantur. Sall.
- 5. By two or more of the preceding modifications connected coordinately; as,

Genus hominum agreste, sine legibus, sine imperio, liberum, atque solutum.

REM. 1. A modified grammatical subject, considered as one complex idea, may itself be modified; as,

Omnia tua consilia, All thy counsels. Here omnia modifies, not consilia, but the complex idea expressed by tua consilia. So Triginta naves longa. Præpotens finitimus rez.

REM. 2. An infinitive, with the words connected with it, may be the logical subject of a proposition; as,

Virtus est vitium fugëre, To shun vice is a virtue.

REM. 3. A clause, or any member consisting of two or more clauses, may be the logical subject of a proposition; as,

E cœlo descendit 'Nosce te ipsum.' Aguum est, ut hoc făcias.

REM. 4. The noun or pronoun which is the subject of a proposition is put in the nominative, when the verb of the predicate is a finite verb; but when the verb is in the infinitive, the subject is put in the accusative.

Note 1. A verb in any mood, except the infinitive, is called a finite verb.

Nore 2. In the following pages, when the term subject or predicate is used alone, the grammatical subject or predicate is intended.

### PREDICATE.

§ 203. 1. The predicate, like the subject, is either simple, complex, or compound.

2. The simple predicate, which is also called the *grammatical* predicate, is either a single finite verb, or the copula *sum* with a noun, adjective, and rarely with an adverb; as,

Sol lúcet, The sun shines. Multa ântinălia rēpunt, Many animals creep. Brivi est réluptas, l'leasure is brief. Eurôpa est pêninsula, Europe is a peninsula. Rectissime sunt apud le omnia.

3. The complex predicate, called also the *logical* predicate, consists of the simple predicate with its modifications; as,

Scipio fūdit Ambhils copias, Scipio routed the forces of Humibal. Here fadit is the grammatical, and fadit Ambhils côpias the logical predicate.— So, Rômalus Rômana conditor urbis fuit.

4. The compound predicate consists of two or more simple or complex predicates belonging to the same subject; as,

Probitus laudātur et alget, Honesty is praised and neglected. Lēti vis răpuit, răpietque gentes. Lucius Catilina fuit magnā vi et arimi et corpŏris, sed ingenio malo pravoque.

# Complex or Modified Prearcate.

The complex predicate is formed by adding other words to the simple predicate. All additions to the predicate, like the predicate itself, are either simple, complex, or compound.

I. Simple additions. The predicate may be modified by adding:—

A single word;—

(1.) A noun or adjective in the same case as the subject. This occurs after certain neuter verbs and passive verbs of naming, calling, etc. (See § 210, R. 3.); as,

Servus fit libertīnus, The slave becomes a freedman. Servius Tullius rex est dēclūrātus. Aristides justus est appellātus. Incēdo regīna.

(2.) A noun or pronoun in an oblique case; as,

Spe vivimus, We live by hope Deus regit mundum, God rules the world.

(3.) An adverb either simple or modified; as,

Sæpe věnit, He came often. Festina lente, Hasten slowly. Litéræ fácile discuntur. Chrémes nimis graviter cráciat ádolescentúlum.

(4.) An infinitive mood; as,

Căpit discere, He desires to learn. Audeo dicere. Ver esse caperat.

2. A phrase consisting of a preposition and its case; as, Vēnit ad urbem, He came to the city.

3. A dependent substantive or adverbial clause; as,

Vêreor ne reprehendar, I fear that I shall be blamed. Zenönem, quum Athènis essem, audiéban fréquenter. Fác cogites.

- II. Complex additions. The predicate may be modified:-
- 1. By a word to which other words are added.

Remark. These words are the same as in the corresponding cases of complex additions to the subject. See § 202, II.

- 2. By a phrase consisting of a preposition and its case, to which other words are added. See complex additions to the subject, § 202.
- 3. By a subordinate clause, to whose subject or predicate other words are added. See complex subject,  $\S$  202, II, 3.
- REM. 2. Each of the words constituting a proposition may be modified by two or more additions not dependent on, nor connected with each other, and consisting either of single words, phrases, or dependent clauses; as, Agamemnönis belli ghiria. Paternum odium erga Romānos. Mens sibi conscia recti. Mea maxime intērest, te rālēre. Ayo tibi grātias. Meipsum inertiæ condemno. Eos hoc môneo. In quo te acciso. Monet eum, ut suspiciones vitet.
- III. Compound additions. 1. The predicate may be modified by two or more words, phrases, or clauses, joined together by a coördinate conjunction. See Compound additions to the subject, § 202, III.

The leading verb is usually either in the indicative or imperative mood, but sometimes in the subjunctive or the historical infinitive.

The members of a compound sentence are connected by coördinate conjunctions; those of a complex sentence by some relative word, or by a subordinate conjunction.

 Instead of a dependent clause connected by a conjunction, a nonn and participle, or two nouns, sometimes stand as an abridged proposition; as,

Bello confecto discessit, i. e. quum bellum confectum esset, discessit, The war being finished, or when the war was finished, he departed. Nil despérandum, Tencro due.

5. An infinitive may be modified like the verb of a predicate.

Agreement is the correspondence of one word with another in gender, number, case, or person.

7. A word is said to govern another, when it requires it to be put in a certain case or mood.

8. A word is said to depend on another, when its case, gender, number, mood, tense, or person, is determined by that word.

 A word is said to follow another, when it depends upon it in construction, whatever may be its position in the sentence.

## APPOSITION.

\$204. A noun, annexed to another noun or to a pronoun, and denoting the same person or thing, is put in the same case; as

Urbs Rōma, The city Rome. Nos consules, We consuls. So Apud Herodótum, patrem histórice, sunt innumerabiles fabiles, In Herodotus, the fither of history, etc. Cic. Lapides silices, flint stones. Liv. Ante me consulem, Before I was consul. Fons cui nomen Arethusa est. Cic.

REMARK 1. (a.) A noun, thus annexed to another, is said to be in apposition to it. It is generally added for the sake of explanation, identification, or description; sometimes it denotes character or purpose; as,  $E_{lbs}$   $E_{lbs}$  countem me adjunzi, I added myself, as a companion of his flight; and sometimes the time, cause, reason, etc., of an action; as, Alexander puer, Alexander when a boy. Cito seines scriber historian institut, Suc.

(b.) A noun in apposition, like an adjective used as an epithet, (§ 205, N. 2,) assumes the attribute denoted by it as belonging to the noun which it limits, while the predicate-noninative affirms it. Hence both nouns belong to the same part of the sentence, whether subject or predicate. In cases of apposition, there seems to be an ellipsis of the ancient participle ens, being; qui est, who is; qui vectur, who is called; or the like.

REM. 2. If the amexed noun has a form of the same gender as the other noun, it takes that form; as, *Usus* magister *egrégius*. Plin. *Philosophia* magister *vibe*. Cic. If the amexed noun is of the common gender, the adjective qualifying it takes the gender of the preceding noun; as, *Laurus* fidissima custos.

Rem. 3. The annexed noun sometimes differs from the other in gender or in number; as, Duo fulmina belli, Scipiddus, clādem Libye. Virg. Miylėma, urbs mobils. Cic. Tullida, deliciæ nostræ. Id.;—and sometimes in both; as, Nāte, new vires. Virg. Nos, animæ viles, inhamādu infebrique turba. Id.

REM. 4. The substantive pronoun is sometimes omitted before the word in apposition to it; as, Consul dixi, scil. égo; (I) the consul said. And instead of the substantive pronoun, a possessive adjective pronoun is sometimes used; as, Tua domas, talls viri. Cic. See § 211, R. 3, (b.)

Rem. 5. A noun may be in apposition to two or more nouns, and, in such case, is usually put in the plural; as, *M. Autonius, C. Cassius*, tribuns in the plural; as, *M. Autonius, C. Cassius*, tribuns of the people. Cass. Publiss of Servis Sullae, Servi filid. Sall. Tib. et Gaius Gracchi. Cic. Orationes L. et C. Aureliorum Orestarum. Id. But sometimes in the singular; as, Ch. et L. Domitius. Cic.

(1.) So when the nouns are connected by cum, the annexed noun taking the case of the former; as, Dicearchum võro cum Aristoxéno, doctos sane hom-lnes, omittâmus. Cic.

(2.) If the nouns are proper names of different genders, a masculine noun is amexed rather than a feminine, when both forms exist; as, Ad Ptolemeum Cleopatrampue règes legôti missi sant. Liv.

REM. 6. The annexed noun is sometimes in the genitive; as, *Urbem Patăvi locăvit*, The city of Patavium. Vigg. *Plurimus* Eridani amnis. Id. Arborem frei nanquam vibirat. Cic. In oppido Antiochize. Id. Ruplii et Persi par. Hor.

REM. 7. The name of a town in the genitive occurs with an ablative in apposition to it; us, Coviathi Achaiæ urbe; At Corinth, a city of Achaia. Tac. Antiochiæ, celebri urbe. Cic. See § 221, Note, and § 254, Rem. 3.

Rem. 8. (a.) A proper name, after nomen or cognomen, with a verb followed by a dative, is put in apposition either to nomen, etc., or to the dative, the latter by a species of attraction; as, Fons, cui nomen Arethūsa est. Cic. Stirps virilis, cui Ascanium parentes dizere nomen. Liv. Nomen Arctiro est mihi, I have the

name Arcturus. Plant. Cui nunc cognômen Iālo additur. Virg. Cui Egerio inditum nômen. Liv.—(b.) The name may also be put in the genitive; as, Nômen Merchrii est mih. Plant. Q. Metellus, cui Macconotic nômen inditum érat. Vell. Cf. R. 6.—(c.) In Illa œtas, cui fecimus Aurea nômen, Ov. Met. 15, 96, Aurea is used as an indeclinable noun, instead of Auream (scil. œtātem); or Aurea, dat. (scil. œtāti.)

REM. 9. A clause may supply the place of one of the nouns; as, Gogitet oratorem institui—rem arduum, Let him reflect that an orator is training—a difficult thing, Quint.—So also a neuter adjective used substantively; as, Triste lipus stabilis, The wolf, a sad thing to the folds. Virg. Variam et mutabile semper femina. Id.

REM. 10. Sometimes the former nonn denotes a whole, and its parts are expressed by nouns in apposition to it; as, onerariae, pars maxima ad Ægimirum,—aliæ adereuss urbem ipsum delities sunt. The ships of burden were carried, the greatest part, to Ægimurus,—others opposite to the city itself. Liv. Pictores et poctae summ quisque opus a rulgo considerair sunt. Cie. In the construction of the ablative absolute, quisque remains in the nominative, though the word to which it is in apposition is in the ablative; as, Multis sibi quisque imperium petentibus. Sall. J. 18. So also, in Liv. 25, 29, quisque remains in the nominative although the word to which it is in apposition is in the accusative with the infinitive.

To this rule may be subjoined that which relates to the agreement of interrogative and responsive words.

REM. 11. The principal noun or pronoun in the answer to a question, must be in the same case as the corresponding interrogative word; as,

Quis hērus est tibi? Amphitruo, scil. est. Who is your master? Amphitruo (is.) Plaut. Quid quæris? Librum, scil. quæro. What are you looking for? A book. Quōtā hōrā venisti? Sextā. At what hour did you come? At the sixth.

Note 1. Instead of the genitive of a substantive pronoun, the corresponding possessive pronoun is othen used, agreeing with its noun; as, Cūjus est liber? Mens, (not Mei.) (See § 211, Ren. 3, (b.) So ağımı for genitive cüjus? Cūjum pēcus? an Melibai? Non; virum Ægônis. Virg.

Note 2. Sometimes the rules of syntax require the responsive to be in a different case from that of the interrogative; as, Quanti emist? Viginti minis. Demanatusme & furti? Imo dilo crimine. See §§ 214, R. 1, and 217, R. 2.

# ADJECTIVES.

\$ 205. Adjectives, adjective pronouns, and participles, agree with their nouns, in gender, number, and case; as,

Bönus vir, A good man.
Benigna mäler, A kind mother.
Triste belluon, A sad war.
Spe amissä, Hope being lost.
Hee res, This thing.

So, Mea måter est benigna. Hæc leges vänæ sunt.

NOTE 1. Adjectives, according to their meaning, (§ 104), are divided into two classes—qualifying and limiting—the former denoting some property or quality of a noun; as, a wise man, lead is heavy, the latter defining or restricting its meaning; as, this man, ten cities. To the former class belong such adjectives as denote a property or quality, including all participles and participial adjectives; to the latter, the adjective pronouns, pronominal adjectives, and numerals.

Note 2. An adjective, participle, or pronoun, may either be used as an epithet to modify a noun, or, with the copula sum, may constitute a predicate. In the former case the quality is assumed, in the latter it is asserted. In both cases, the rule for their agreement is, in general, the same. See § 210, R. 1.

NOTE 3. Any word or combination of words added to a noun to modify or limit its meaning is of the nature of an adjective.

Note 4. In the following remarks, the word adjective is to be considered as including participles, either alone or combined with the auxiliary sum, and also adjective pronouns, unless the contrary is intimated.

REMARK I. An adjective agrees also with a substantive pronoun, taking its gender from that of the noun for which the pronoun stands; as, Ipse capellas ager ágo, scil. égo, Melibæns; Virg. Fortundte puer, tu nunc eris alter do illo. Id. Ut se totum et triddret. Nep. O me misērum (spoken by a man), misērum me (spoken by a woman). So salvi sāmus, saites sīmus, saite, lons, masculine or feminine.—In general propositions which include both sexes, the pronouns are considered masculine; as, Nos frégree considered masculine; as, Nos frégree considered masculine;

REM. 2. An adjective may belong to each of two or more nouns, and in such case is put in the plural. If the nouns are of the same gender, the adjective agrees with them in gender, as well as in number: as.

L'upus et agnus siti compulsi, A wolf and a lamb, constrained by thirst. Phæd. Sicilia Sardiniaque amissæ. Liv.

When the nouns are of different genders,

(1.) If they denote living things, the adjective is masculine rather than feminine; as,

Păter mini et mater mortui sunt, My father and mother are dead. Ter. So also uterque in the singular. Procumbit uterque, scil. Deucâlion et Pyrrha. Ovid.

(2.) If they denote things without life, the adjective is generally neuter; as,

His genus, œtas, eboquentia prope æquālia fuore. Their family, age, and eloquence, were nearly equal. Sall. Regna, impéria, nobilitātes, homes, diritiæ in cosu sita sunt. Cic. Haic bella, rapine, discordia cirilis, grāta fuere. Sall. Anima atque animus, quanwis integra récens in corpus cunt. Lucr.

Note. When nouns denoting things without life are of the same gender (either masculine or feminine), but of different numbers, the adjective is sometimes neuter; as, Craso et vita et putrimonii partes, et urbs Barce concessa suut. Just; sometimes also when both nouns are in the singular number; as, Plerosque veloctus et régio hostibus ignāra tutāta sunt. Sull. Now utque præda remorāta sunt. Id.

(3.) If one of the nouns denotes an animate, and another an inanimate thing, the adjective is sometimes neuter, and sometimes takes the gender of that which has life; as,

Numidæ atque signa militāria obscurāti sunt, The Numidians and the military standards were concealed. Sall. Romāni rēgēm regnumgue Macedoinie sua futūra sciunt. Liv. Jāne, fāc acternos pācem pacisque ministros. Ovid.

Exc. to Rem. 2. The adjective often agrees with the nearest noun, and is understood with the rest; as,

Sociis et rege recepto, Our companions and king having been recovered. Virg. Ayri omnes et mária. Cic. Cognitum est salatem, libéros, fămam, fortimas esse cărissimus. Cic.

Note. A noun in the singular, followed by an ablative with cum, has sometimes a plural adjective, the gender being the same as if the nouns were connected by et; as, Filiam cum filio accitos. Liv. Ilia cum Lauso de Namitore sait. Ovid. Filium Alexandri cum matre in arcem custodiendos mitti. Just.

REM. 3. (1.) An adjective qualifying a collective noun is often put in the plural, taking the gender of the individuals which the noun denotes; as,

Pars certure părăti, A part, prepared to contend. Virg. Pars per agros dilapsi. ... suam quisque spem exsequentes. Liv. Supplex turba erant sine judice tăti. Ovid. This construction always occurs when the collective noun is the subject of a plural verb. See § 209, R. 11.

(2.) Sometimes, though rarely, an adjective in the singular takes the gender of the individuals; as, Pars arduus allis pulvērāleutus ēquis fārit. Virg. Pars āna dācum-fractus morbo. Ovid.

(3.) Sometimes other nouns, which only in a figurative sense denote human beings, have by syndsis an adjective of a different gender from their own, refering to the words which they include; as, Latium Cipatague agro mulchati, Latium and Capua were deprived of their land. Liv. Cipita conjūrātionis xirgis cess ac seicari percussi sunt. Id. Auxilia Irāti. Id. So after millia; as, Duo millia Tyriorum, crācibus affiixi. Curt. Cf. § 23.3, 3(4).

REM. 4. Two adjectives in the singular are sometimes joined to a plural roun; as, Miria Tyrrhëmun adque Adriaticum, The Tuscan and Adriatic seas. Liv. Cara legionibus secunda et tertia. Liv. Grea portas Collinam Esquifnamque. Id. But sometimes the noun is in the singular; as, Inter Esquilanam Collinamque portam. Id. Legio Martia et quarta. In comic writers, an adjective or participle in the singular is sometimes used with a plural pronoun; as, Nobis præsente. Plant. Absente nobis. Ter.

REM. 5. A participle which should regularly agree with the subject of a proposition, when placed after the noun of the predicate, (a) sometimes takes the gender and number of the latter; as, Non omis error stubilite est dicenda, Not every error is to be called folly. Cic. Gens universa Vindti appelläti. Liv. (b) Sometimes also it agrees with a noun following the subject and in apposition to it; as, Cirinthum, patres restri, totins Gracia lümen, exstinctum esse voluvirut. Cic.; or (c) with the noun of a subordinate-sentence; as, Illorum urbem ut propugniculum oppositum esse barburis. Nep.

Rem. 6. When the subject of an infinitive is omitted after a dative of the same signification, (§ 239, R. 1.) an adjective in the predicate, belonging to that subject, is sometimes put in the dartive; as, Miki negligenti esse non licuit, i. e. me negligentem esse miki non licuit. Cic. Da miki justo sanctōque videri. Hor. A noun is sometimes expressed with the adjective; as, Vöbis nievse est fortibus esse viris. Liv. But the adjective often agrees with the omitted subject; as, Expédit bônas esse vöbis, seil. vos. Ter. Si ciri Rômâno licet esse Gâdtānum. Cic.

Rem. 7. (1.) An adjective is often used alone, especially in the plural, the noun, with which it agrees, being understood; as,

Boni sunt rāri, scil. hōmines, Good (men) are rare. Cesar suos mīsū, scil. mīlites, Cesar sent his (soldiers). Dextra, scil. mānus, The right (hand). happelentur pinguis (rīme, scil. caris. Virg. Hīberna, scil. casīra. Altum, scil. mūre. Quartāna, scil. febris. Immortāles, scil. Dīi. Lucr. Amentium, scil. hōmīni. rum. Ter. Illum indiguanti similem, similemque uninanti sopieres, scil. hōmīni. Virg. Tībi prīmas dēf éro, scil. partes. Cie. Respice prætéritum, scil. tempus, which is often omitted, as in cz quo, ez co, and ez illo, scil. tempore. Gugnōra ez meorum omnium litēris, scil. anicōrum. Cic. So patrial adjectives; as, Mīssi ad Parthum Armēniumque lēgāti, scil. rēgem. In Tuscūlāno, scil. prædio.

- Note 1. The noun to be supplied with masculine adjectives is commonly homines, but when they are possessives, it is oftener àmici, milites, cices, or propinqui.
  - Note 2. The nonn to be supplied is often contained in a preceding clause.
- (2.) An adjective in the neuter gender, without a noun, is often used substantively, where, in English, the word thing or things is to be supplied; as,

Bônum, a good thing; milum, a bad thing, or, an evil. So hönestum, vērum, turpe; and in the phiral, bôna, māla, turpul, lēvia, calestia, etc. Lābor omnila vincil, Labor overcomes all things. Virg.

Note 1. The Latins generally preferred adding res to an adjective, to using its neuter as a substantive. But sometimes, when res is used, an adjective or pronoun referring to it is put in the neuter instead of the feminine; as, Earum rerum utrumque. Cic. Hūmēnērum rerum fortūna plērāque rēgit. Sall. Illud te rēgo, samptui ne prucas ulla in re, quod ud vāletūdinem õpus sid. Cic. Omnium rērum mors est extrēmum. Cic.

Note 2. Instead of thing or things, other words may sometimes be supplied, as the sense requires. With a preposition, neuter adjectives form adverbial phrases; as, A primo, At first. Plaut. Per mütua, Mutually. Virg. In primis, In the first place. Ad hor, or Ad hec, Moreover, besides.

(3.) Adjectives used substantively often have other adjectives agreeing with them; as, Alia omnia, All other (things.) Plin. Iniquissimi mei, My greatest enemies. Fömilläris mens. Cic. Iniquus noster. Id. Justa fünebria. Liv. Jöris omnia plēna. scil. sunt. Virg.

REM. 8. (a.) Imperatives, infinitives, adverbs, clauses, and words considered merely as such, may be used substantively, and take a neuter adjective in the singular number; as, Suprēmum vide dizid, He pronounced a last farewell. Ovid. Dulce et décornm est pro patrià mori. Hor. Velle suum cuique est. Pers. Crus istud quando rèait Mart. J. Rédibo actitum. A. Id actitum die est. Plaut. Excepto quod non simul esses, citéra letus. Hor. (b.) In the poets and later prose writers the adjective, as in Greek, is sometimes in the neuter plural; as, Ut Ariesa pélago juctitur—nota tül. Virg.

REM. 9. (a.) Adjectives and adjective pronouns, instead of agreeing with their nouns, are sometimes put in the neuter gender, with a partitive signification, and their nouns in the genitive; as, Multum tempóris, for multum tempos; much time. Id rei, for ea res; that thing. So, plus ibiquentie, the other form not being admissible with plus. (See § 110, (b.) Neuter adjectives are used in like manner in the plural; as, Vāna rērum, for rāme res. Hor. Plērāque hāmārum rērum. Sall. Ct. § 212, R. 3, N. 4. But in some such examples, the adjective seems to be used substantively, according to Rem. 7, (2); as, Acūta belli. Hor. Tellāris operta. Vigs. Sumina pectóris.

Note. The adjectives thus used partitively in the singular, for the most part, signify quantity. See § 212, Rem. 3, Note 1.

Rem. 10. A neuter adjective is sometimes used adverbially in the nominative or accusative, both singular and plural; as, Dulce ridentem Lidigen amabo, dulce liquentem. Hor. Magmum stridens. Virg. Arma horrendum sönnere. Id. Multa deos venerati sant. Cic. Hödle aut summum cras. Id. See § 192, II. 4, (b.)

REM. 11. (a.) A noun is sometimes used as an adjective; as, Němo miles Romans, No Roman soldier. Liv. Němo f'ére didlescens. Cic. Vir němo boiaus. Id. Cí. § 207, R. 31, (c.) Tibérin accelis fláciis orbětum. Tac. Incôla turba. Ovid. The poets use in this manner the Greek patronymics in as and is; as, Pélius lusta. Ovid. Luarus Parnásis. Id. Ursa Libystis. Virg. Cf. also § 123, 8.

(b.) An adverb is also sometimes used as an adjective; as, Nèque ênim ignări sâmus ante multorum; i. e. antiquorum or pretêritorum. Virg. Nume homirum mores. Plant.

REM. 12. (a.) An adjective or adjective pronoun, used partitively, stands alone, and commonly takes the gender of the genitive plural, which depends upon it; but when it is preceded by a noun of a different gender, to which it refers, it usually takes that gender, but sometimes that of the genitive, as *Eliphanto belludarum* nulla est pradentior, No least is wiser than the elephant. Cic. Indus, qui est omnium flaminum maximus. Cic. Velocissimum omnium admaltime est delphinus. Plin. See § 212, Ren. 2.—(b.) So also with de, ex. in, dpud, inter, etc., with the ablative or accusative instead of the partitive genitive. See § 212, Ren. 2, N. 4.

(c.) When a collective noun follows in the genitive singular, (§ 212, R. 2.) the adjective takes the gender of the individuals which compose it, as, Vir fortissimus mostres civiliziis, The bravest man of our state. Cic. Maximus stirpis.

Liv.

REM. 13. (a.) When a possessive pronoun or adjective is used instead of the genitive of its primitive or of its corresponding noun (see § 211, R. 8, (b.) and (c.) and R. 4), an adjective agreeing with that genitive is sometimes joined with such possessive; as, Sölius meum peccălum corrigi non pôtest, The fault of me alone cannot be corrected. Cic. Noster duörum cerentus. Liv. Tuum ipsius stădium. Cic. Pugna Römäna stābilis suo pondère incumbentium in hostem. Liv.

(b.) Sometimes a noun in the genitive is expressed, in apposition to the substantive pronoun for which the possessive stands; as, Pectus tuum, hominis

simplicis. Cic.

Rem. 14. An adjective, properly belonging to the genitive, is sometimes made to agree with the noun on which the genitive depends, and vice versa; as, Adificationis true consilium for tunm, Your design of building. Cic. Accasantes violati hospitii feedus, tor violatum. Liv. Ad majora initiu vivum discentibus faits, for majorum. Id. Iis nominibus civitatum, quibus ex civitatibus, etc., for earum civitatum. Ces.

Rem. 15. (à.) An adjective agreeing with a noun is sometimes used, instead of an adverb qualifying a verb, especially in poetry; as, Exce vinit Télimon propèrus, Lo, Telamon comes in haste. Ovid. Læti påvem ågitäbåmus, for læte. Sall. Ænéus se mättitimus ägibut, for måne. Virg. Nec läpus grégibus noctur-

nus öbambālat, i. e. by night. Id.

(b.) So nullus is used for non; as, Minini timetsi nullus mõueas, Though you do not suggest it. Fer. Sextus do armis nullus discédit. Cic. Prior, prismus, princeps, própior, proximus, sòlus, ūnus, ultimus, multus, tötus, and some others, are used instead of their neuters, adverbially as, Priori Rima augūrium vinisse fertur. Liv. Hispānia postrima omnium provinciārum perdomāta est. Liv. Scavola solos novem menses Asia prefuit, Only nine months. Cic. Unum hoc dico, This only I say. Id. This is sometimes done, for want of an adverb of appropriate meaning; as, Pröms cécidit. Ovid. Frèquentes convent-aunt. Sall.

(c.) In such expressions, tu, in the nominative, sometimes takes an adjective in the vocative, and rice versā; as, Sic vēnias hödierne. Tibull. Salve,

primus omnium parens patrice appellate. Plin.

REM. 16. (a.) A noun is often qualified by two or more adjectives; and sometimes the complex idea, formed by a noun with one or more adjectives, is itself qualified by other adjectives, which agree in gender, etc. with the noun.

- (b.) When several adjectives, each independently of the other, qualify a noun, if they precede it, they are almost always connected by one or more conjunctions; as, Malta et varia et côpiôsā ôrâtione. Cic. If they follow it, the conjunction is sometimes expressed, and sometimes omitted; as, Vir allus et excellens. Cic. Actio, varia, victimens, plana évitatis. 1d.
- (c.) But when one of the adjectives qualifies the noun, and another the complex idea formed by the first with the noun, the conjunction is always omitted; as, Periodiosissimum cicile bellum, A most dangerous civil war. Gic. M\(\text{Mahm}\) domestican disciplinam. Id. So with three or more adjectives; Externos multos cliros viros n\(\text{noind}\) are (C. Cf. \(\frac{4}{2}\) \text{21, III., R. 1.}\)

REM. 17. The first part, last part, middle part, etc., of any place or time are generally expressed in Latin by the adjectives primus, medius, ultimus, extremus, intimus, infimus, imus, summus, supremus, reliquus, and cetera : as,

Media nox, The middle of the night. Summa arbor, The top of a tree. Supremos montes, The summits of the mountains. But these adjectives frequently occur without this signification; as, Ab extremo complexu, From the last embrace. Cic. Infimo loso natus, Of the lowest rank. Id.

REM. 18. The participle of the compound tenses of verbs, used impersonally in the passive voice, is nenter; as, Ventum est. Cic. Itum est in viscera terras. Ovid. Scribendum est mihi. See § 184, 2 and 3.

## RELATIVES.

§ 206. Rem. 19. (a.) Relatives agree with their antecedents in gender, number, and person, but their case depends on the construction of the clause to which they belong; as,

Puer qui légit, The boy who reads. Ædificium quod exstruxit, The house which he built. Litëræ quas dédi, The letter which I gave. Non sum qualis ěrum, I am not such as I was. Hor. So Deus cūjus mūněre vīvimus, cui nullus est similis, quem colimus, a quo facta sunt omnia, est eternus. Addictus Hermippo, et ab hoc ductus est. Aquilo, quantus frangit ilices. Hor.

Note 1. This rule includes all adjectives and adjective pronouns which relate to a noun in a preceding clause. Its more common application, however, is to the construction of the demonstrative pronouns and the relative qui.

Note 2. When a pronoun refers to the mere words of a sentence, it is said to be used logically. Qui and is are so used, and sometimes also hic and ille.

(b.) The relative may be considered as placed between two cases of the same noun, either expressed or understood, with the former of which it agrees in gender, number, and person, and with the latter in gender, number, and case.

(1.) Sometimes both nouns are expressed; as,

Erant omnino duo itinèra, quibus itinèribus domo exire possent, There were only two routes, by which routes they could leave home. Cass. Crūdēlissimo bello, quale bellum nulla umquam barbaria gessit. Cic. But it is most frequent with the word dies; as, Fore in armis certo die, qui dies futurus erat, etc. Cic. The repetition of the substantive is necessary, when, for any reason, it becomes doubtful to which of two or more preceding substantives the relative refers.

(2.) Usually the antecedent noun only is expressed; as,

Animum rège, qui, nisi paret, impèrat, Govern your passions, which rule unless they obey. Hor. Tanta multitudinis, quantum capit urbs nostra, concursus est ad me factus. Cie. Quot căpitum vivunt, totidem studiorum millia.

(3.) Sometimes the latter noun only is expressed, especially when the relative clause, as is frequently the case, precedes that of the antecedent; as,

Quibus de rēbus ad me scripsisti, corum vidēbimus : seil. de rēbus, lu regard to the things of which you wrote to me, we will consider when we meet. Cic. In quem primum egressi sunt löeum, Troja vocatur; seil, löeus. Liv. Quanta vi expétunt, tunta défendunt. Qualesque visus éram vidisse viros, ex ordine tales aspicio, Ovid.

- (a.) The place of the antecedent is sometimes supplied by a demonstrative pronoun; as, Ad quas res aphissimi érimus, in its politisamum élabórabimus. Cic. But the demonstrative is often omitted when its case is the same as that of the relative, and not unfrequently, also, when the cases are different. When the relative clause precedes that of the antecedent, is is expressed only for the sake of emphasis. Hence we find such sentences as, Maximum ornāmentum âmicitius tollit, qui ex ex tollit vérécundium. Cic. Terra quod accēpit, namupum sine āsārā reallit. Id.—The demonstrative adjectives and adverbs are in like manner often omitted before their corresponding relatives; tālis before quālis, tantus before quantus, inde before unde, to before ūbi, etc.
- (b.) Sometimes the latter noun only is expressed, even when the relative clause does not precede; as, Quis non malārum quas āmor cūras hābet, hæc inter obliriscitur f Hor.
- (4.) Sometimes neither noun is expressed; this happens especially when the antecedent is designedly left indefinite, or when it is a substantive pronoun; as,
- Qui bêne lătuit, bêne vixit, soil. hōmo, (He) who has well escaped notice, has lived well. Ovid. Sunt quos currivilo pulvêrem Olympicum collègisse jûvat, soil. hōmines, There are whom it delights, i. e. Some delight. Hor. Non hōbeo quod te accisem, soil. id propter quod. Cic. Non sōlum sōpiens vidēris, qui hine absis, sed tiam beātus, soil. tu. Cic.
- (5.) The relative is sometimes either entirely omitted; as, Urbs antiqua fult; Tyrii ténuère còlòni, seil. quam or eam, There was an ancient city (which) Tyrian colonists possessed, Virg.; or, if once expressed, is afterwards omitted, even when, if supplied, its case would be different; as, Boschus cum péditibus, quos filius rjus adducérat, nêque in priòre puynà adfuérant, Rômānos invadunt, for et qui non in priòre, etc. Sall.
- (6.) (a.) The relative sometimes takes the case of the antecedent, instead of its own proper case; as, Quum scribus et illiquid dyets corum, quorum consuesti, for que. Cic. Roptim quibus quisque pôtérat élatis, exibant, for üs, que quisque efferre pôtérat, élatis. Liv.
- (b.) The antecedent likewise sometimes takes the case of the relative, the substantive either preceding or following the pronoun; as, Urbem quam statuo vestra est, for urbs. Virg. Eunitelman quem dedisti nobis, quas turbus dedit for Eunächus. For. Nancritem quem concenire volui, in navi non érat. Plant. Aque dili, quorum concenta prisca virorum est, for adque dili viri, quorum concenta prisca virorum est, for adque dili viri, quabus. Id. Ques pueros mistèram, épistolum mithi attalerunt. Cic.

These constructions are said to occur by attraction.

- (7.) (a.) An adjective, which properly belongs to the antecedent, is some-times placed in the relative clause, and agrees with the relatives, so, Interjovos, quos inconditos jāciunt, for jācos inconditos, quos, etc. Amidst the rude jests which they utter. Liv. Verbis, quae magna volant. Virg. Calbre, quem multum kābēt. Cic.
- (b.) This is the common position of the adjective, when it is a numeral, a comparative, or a superlative; as, Nocte quam in terris ultimam ēpit, The last night which he spent upon curth. Escalāpins, qui primus vulnus obligārisse dīctur. Cic. Consilis pāre, quæ nume pulcherrima Nautes dat sēnior, Listen to the excellent advice, which, etc. Virg. Some instances occur in which au adjective belonging to the relative clause, is placed in that of the antecedent; as, Quæm vēnissent ad vāda Volaterrana, quæ nominantur, Which are called Volaterran. Cic.
- (8.) When to the relative or demonstrative is joined a noun explanatory of its antecedent, but of a different gender or number, the relative or demonstrative usually agrees with that noun; as,

Santones non longe a Tolosatium finibus absunt, quæ cīvitas est in provincia, The Santones are not far distant from the borders of the Tolosates, which state is in the province. Cæs. Ante comitia, quod tempus haud longe ăberat. Sall. Rome fănum Dianæ populi Lătini cum populo Romano fecerunt: ea erat confessio căput rerum Romam esse; i. e. that thing or that act. Liv. Si omnia facienda sunt, que âmici rélint, non amicitive tales, sed conjurationes putande sunt; i. e. such things or such connections. Cic. So, Ista quidem vis, Surely this is force. Ea ipsa causa belli fuit, for id ipsum. Hither also may be referred such explanatory sentences as, Qui meus amor in te est, Such is my love for you. Cic.

(9.) If the relative refers to one of two nouns, denoting the same

object, but of different genders, it agrees with either; as,

Flümen est Arar quod in Rhödanum influit. Cæs. Ad flümen Oxum perventum est, qui turbidus semper est. Curt.

(10.) When, in a relative clause containing the verb sum or a verb of naming, esteeming, etc., a predicate-noun occurs of a different gender from the antecedent, the relative commonly agrees with the latter; but when the preceding noun is to be explained and distinguished from another, the relative agrees with the former; as,

Natura vultus quem dixere Chaos, The appearance of nature which they called chaos. Ovid. Genus hominum quod Helotes vocatur. Nep. Animal, quem rocamus hominem, The animal whom we call man. Cic. Locus in carcere, quod Tullianum appellatur. Sall. Peruniarum conquisitio; cos esse belli cīvīlis nervos dietītans Muciānus. Tac.

(11.) The relative sometimes agrees with a noun, either equivalent in sense to the antecedent, or only implied in the preceding clause; as,

Abundantia eārum rērum, quæ mortāles prīma pătant, An abundance of those things, which mortals esteem most important. Sall. Cf. § 205, R. 7, (2.) N. 1. But sometimes when a neuter adjective used substantively has preceded, res with a relative follows; as, Permulta sunt, quæ die i possunt, quæ re intelligatur. Cic. Fatale monstrum, quæ, etc., scil. Cleopatra. Hor. Cf. § 323, 3, (4.)

(a.) A relative or demonstrative pronoun, referring to a collective noun, or to a noun which only in a figurative sense denotes a human being, sometimes takes the gender and number of the individuals which the noun implies; as,

Equitātum, quos. Sall. Genus, qui premuntur. Cic. Senātus—ii. Sall.

(b.) A pronoun in the plural often follows a noun in the singular, referring not only to the noun but to the class of persons or things to which it belongs; as, Democritum omittamus; nihil est énim apud istos, quod, etc. i. e. with Democritus and his followers. Cic. Dionysius neguvit se jure illo nigro quod cœnæ căput erat, delectatum. Tum is, qui illa corerat, etc. Id.

(12.) The antecedent is sometimes implied in a possessive pronoun; as, Omnes laudāre fortūnas meas, qui nātum tāli ingēnio prædītum hābērem; scil. mei, All were extelling my fortune, who, etc. Ter. Id men minime refert, qui sum natu maximus. Id. Nostrum consilium laudandum est, qui noluérim, etc. Cic.; or in a possessive adjective; as, Servili tumultu, quos, etc. Cæs.

(13.) (a.) Sometimes the antecedent is a proposition; the relative then is commonly neuter; as, Postremo, quod difficillimum inter mortales, gloria invidiam vicisti, Finally, you have overcome envy with glory, which, among men, is most difficult. Sall. Equidem exspectabam jam tuas literas, idque cum multis. Cic.

(b.) In such instances, id is generally placed before the relative pronoun, referring to the idea in the antecedent clause; as, Sive, id quod constat, Platonis studiosus audiendi fuit. Cic. Diem consumi rolebant, id quod fecerunt. Id.

(c.) Sometimes is, referring to a clause, agrees with a noun following; as, Idem velle atque idem nolle, ca demum firma amicitia est. Sall.

- (14.) Quod, relating to a preceding statement, and serving the purpose of transition, is often placed at the beginning of a sentence after a period, where it may be translated by 'nay,' 'now,' or 'and.' It is thus used especially before si, etsi, and nisi; as, Quodsi illine trains profi agisses, tamen ista tua figa mif firm plackaritur, i. e. and even if you had fied without taking any thing with you, still, etc. Cic. Verr. 1, 14. Quodsi, 'if then,' is especially used in introducing something assumed as true, from which further inferences may be drawn. Sometimes also it is equivalent to 'although! Quodusis signifies 'if then—not'; as, Quodusis igo mea addrenta illine contains deparation repressissem, tum multos, etc. Quodetsi is 'nay, even if'; as, Quodusis imagnis procedit guidam dicendi cipium sine ratino consequentur, are timen est dux vertior.—Quod is found also before quum, abi, quia, quoniam, na und attuom, where the conjunction alone would seem to be sufficient; as, Quod attuam illum, câjus impio facinore in has misèrius préjectus sum, cadem hac similantem videam. Sail. It is so used even before a relative in Cic. Phil. 10, 4, pn.—Quod, in such examples, seems to be an accusative, with propher or ad understood.
- (15.) (a.) A relative is always plural, when referring to two or more nouns in the singular. If the nouns are of different genders, the gender of the relative is determined by Rem. 2, page 185; as, Ninus et Simiriamis, qui Biblifona condidirant, Ninus and Semiramis, who had founded Babylon. Vell. Crébro füafall et tibicine, quæ sibi sumpsérat. Cic. Ex summå lættiå atque lusciciä, quæ diaturaa quies pépérèrat. Sall. Nives et coptivos quæ ad Chum capta èrant, Liv.

(b.) If the antecedents are of different persons, the relative follows the first person rather than the second or third, and the second rather than the third; as, Ta et pâter, qui in convivio êvâtis. Ego et tu, qui êvânua. Cf. § 209, R. 12, (7.)

- (16.) The relative adjectives quot, quantus, qualits, are construed like the relative qui. They have generally, in the autoecelent clause, the corresponding demonstrative words, tot, tantus, talls; but these are also often omitted. Frequently also the order of the clauses is reversed, so that the relative clause precedes the demonstrative.
- (17.) Qui, at the beginning of a sentence, is often translated like a demonstrative; as, Quæ quum ita sint, Since these (things) are so. Cic.
- (18.) The relative qui with sum and either a nominative or the ablative of quality, is used in explanatory clauses, instead of pro, in accordance with, or 'according to'; thus, instead of Ta, pro tua pridentia, quid optimum factu sit, etidois. Cic., we may say, quo tua est pridentia, or, quo pridentia es. So, Vilis tantummoto, quae tua virtus, expuynabis. Hor. Qua pridentia es, nihil te făgiet. Cic.
- (19.) A relative clause is sometimes used for the purpose of denoting by circumlocution the person of the agent in a definite but not permanent condition; as, h, qvi awimut, or qvi adsant, i. e. the hearers, the persons present. So, also, a relative clause is used for the English expression 'above mentioned'; as, E elibris quos divisi or quos ante (supra) laudiari; and the English 'so called,' or 'what is called,' is expressed by quem, quam, quad vôcant, or by qui, quo, quod vôcaur, dicitur, etc.; as, Nee Hermas hos, quos vôcant, impôni (Allenis) lacibut. Cic. Vestru, que dicitur, via, mors est. Id.
- (20.) Relative and demonstrative adverbs (see § 191, R. 1), are frequently used instead of relative and demonstrative pronouns with prepositions; as, Is, unde te audisse divis, i. e. a quo. Cic. Divitive apoul illus sunt, aut this illusohunt, i. e. apud aucs. Sall. Huic ab addlescentia bella intestina, coedes, rapinae, discordia civilis, grata furre, ibique juventatem exercuit, i. e. in iis, in these things. Sall.
- (21.) With guam qui and the superlative after tam the verb of the relative clause is sometimes omitted; a, Tam mithi grātum id črit, quam quod grātissi-vaum. Cic. Tam mini sum ânicus reiphilica, quam qui maxime. Id. Tam sum mitis, quam qui lenissimus. Id. So also with ut qui without tam; as, Te semper sic colum et tubbor, ut quem diligentissime. Id.

#### DEMONSTRATIVES.

§ 207. Rem. 20. The oblique cases of the personal pronoun of the third person (him, her, etc.) are commonly expressed in prose by the oblique cases of is, en, id. Hie and ille, however, being more emphatic, take the place of is, en, id. Hie and ille, however, being more ensorable, when particular emphasis is intended. The cases of ipse, ipsa, ipsam, also, are employed for this purpose, when the individuality of the person is to be distinctly expressed. In reflexive sentences, the oblique cases of the pronoun of the third person, are regularly supplied by sii, sibi, se; and it is only when the person of the leading subject is to be referred to with particular emphasis, that ipse is used instead of sia.

REM. 21. The demonstrative pronouns, is and ille, are sometimes used, especially with quidem, where a corresponding word in English is unnecessary; as, Sopieniue stadium vitus id quidem in nostris, sed tamen, etc. Cic. O höminem so mper illum quidem mihi optam, nunc viro étiem suavem. 1d. Quem nique fides, vietque jusjivanudum, néque illum mistricovidia, répressit, Whom neither fidelix, nor an oath, nor pity, has restrained. Ter. Is when used for the sake of emphasis seems sometimes in English to be superfluous; as, Mide se res håbet, quam, quod ciritat effici dibet, id tentatur pécania. Cic.

REM. 22. Sic, it a, id, hoc, illud, are often used redundantly as a preliminary amouncement of a subsequent proposition, and are added to the verb on which this proposition depends; as, Sic a majoribus suis accipirant, tanta pipuli Romin esse binification, at, etc. Cic. Te illud admone, ut quotidic meditive, resistentum esse iracumine. Id. Hoc tibi persuadeas relim, me mini omisses, I wish you to be persuaded of this—that I have omitted nothing. These pleonastic additions have generally no influence on the construction of propositions, but in a few instances they are followed by ut; as, De cajus diceuli cipia sic accipiams, ut, etc. Cic. Ita cinim definia, ut persturbatio sit, etc. Id. In the phrase hoc, illud, or id digire at, the pronoun is established by custom and is necessary. See § 273, 1, (a.)

REM. 23. (a.) Hie 'this' refers to what is near to the speaker either in place or time, ille 'that' to what is more remote. Hence hie sometimes refers to the speaker himself, and hie homo is then the same as ègo. On this account hie is sometimes called the demonstrative of the first person. When reference is smade to two things previously mentioned, hie commonly refers to the latter, ille to the former, and the pronouns are arranged in the same order, as the objects to which they relate; as, Ipraéria corpus hiebétat, libbor firmat; illa mâtărom sênectûtem, hie longum âdolesc entiam reddit, Sloth enervates the body, lahor strengthens it; the former produces premature old age, the latter protracted youth. Cels.

(b.) But the order is often reversed, so that hic refers to the object first mentioned, and ille to the one mentioned last; as, Sic deus et tripo est; his spe eller, illa timöre. Ovid. So when alter...alter, 'the one...the other,' refer to two things mentioned before, the previous order is sometimes observed and sometimes reversed; but wherever there is ambiguity the order is reversed, so that the first alter refers to the last object. Sometimes hic...hic are used instead of hic...ille. So ille...ille sometimes denote 'the one...the other.'

(c.) Hic and ille have the same relation to time present and past as nunc and tunc, see § 277; and hence whatever, in speaking of present time, is expressed by hic and its derivative adverbs, hic, hinc, huc, and adhuc, is expressed by ille and its derivatives, when it is spoken of as belonging to past time.

REM. 24. Ille, when not in opposition to hie, is often used to denote that which is of general notoriety; as, Magno illi Alexandro simillimus, Very like Alexander the Great. Vell. Media illa, The celebrated Medea. Cic. Hence ille is sometimes added to other pronouns, to refer to something discussed before; as, Acèban visère, quis ille tot per annos ôpes nostrus sprévissel. Tac. Ille is sometimes translated this; as, Tunn illud duo, This only I say. Cic. Ille

sometimes marks a change of persons, and may then be translated 'the other'; as, Vervingetoric obrian Cashri proficisettur. Ille (scil. Casar) oppidum Noviodinum oppingare instituerat. Casa.

REM. 25. Is te properly refers to the person addressed, and for this reason is called the demonstrative of the second person.—Ille refers to the person spoken of, and is hence called the demonstrative of the third person. Thus iste liber is thy book, but ille liber is the book of which we are speaking. Hence, in letters, hie and its derivatives are used of the writer; its and its derivatives of the person addressed; ille, etc., of some other person or thing. See§191, R. 1.( $\epsilon$ .) Iste from its frequent forensic use, and its application to the opponent, often denotes contempt.

REM. 26. (a.) Is does not, like hic, ille, and iste, denote the place or order of the object to which it relates, but either refers without particular emphasis to something already mentioned or to something which is to be defined by the relative qni. It is, is, or ille, may be used in this way before the relative, but only hic or is after it: as, Qni dotet, is discit, or hic discit, but not ille discit, unless some individual is referred to.

(b.) Is before a relative or ut has sometimes the sense of tāhs, such, denoting a class; as, Nēque řaim tu is es, qui quid sis nescius. Nor are you such a person, as not to know what you are. Cie.; sometimes it has the force of idem; as, vos

-ii. Cic. Manil. 12.

(c) If the noun to which is refers is to receive some additional predicate, we must use et is, atque is, isque, et is quidem, and with a negative nec is; as, Vineula vivo, et ea semptierna, etc. Cic. Una in domo, et ea quidem angusta, etc. Id. Adolese entes aliquot, nec ii ténui bleo orti, etc. Liv. Sed is is used when the additional predicate is opposed to the preceding; as, Séprittaem in sénectite probo, sed eam, sieut ália, módicam. Cic. The neuter et id, or idque, serves to introduce an addition to the preceding proposition; as, Quamquam te, Marce f'ili, annum jam audienten (Valippun, idque Athenis, etc.)

(d.) Is is not expressed when it would be in the same oblique case as the preceding noun to which it refers; as, Pater amat libéros et tamen castigat.

Multos illustrat fortūna, dum vexat.

(e.) When in English 'that' or 'those' is used instead of the repetition of the preceding substantive, is is never used in Latin, and ille only in later authors. In such cases the noun is commonly not repeated in Latin, and no pronoun is used in its place; as, Philippus hostium manus seepe ritärit, subrum effagive nom raduit, those of his own subjects, Curt. Sometimes the substantive is repeated; as, Jādicia (ritātis cum jādicia principis certant. Vell. Sometimes a possessive adjective is used instead of the genitive depending on the omitted substantive; as, Terentii fābādus stādiāse lēpo, Plautīnis minus dilector; and sometimes instead of the genitive or a possessive adjective the name of the person itself is put in the case which the verb governs; as, Si cum Lycurgo et Drācōne et Solone nostras lēpas conferre robabitis. Cic.—In Cicero hie and ille, when the preceding substantive is understood, retain their demonstrative signification, and therefore do not merely supply the place of the omitted substantive; as, Nullam čnim virtus āliam mercēdem dēsidērat, præter hanc, i. e. the one of which I am speaking. Cic.

REM. 27. (a.) Ide m, as denoting a subject which stands in equal relations to two different predicates, often supplies the place of item or étiom, 'also,' 'at the same time,' or of timen, 'yet,' if the things are apparently inconsistent; as, Müsici, qui érant quoudam tidem porta. Musicians, who formerly were poets also. Cic. Euphrâtes et Tigris magao âquărum divortio iter percurrunt; tidem (and yet) paulătin în arctius co'unt.

(b.) Et ipse, on the other hand, denotes that the same predicate belongs to two subjects. It is rendered by 'too' or 'also'; as, Autoninus Commodus nihil poternum behalt, insi quod contra Germainos filititer et ipse punquavit, for item or ipse quoque. Eutr.—So, also, nec ipse is used in the sense of 'neither'; as, Primis répulsis Muharbal cum majore rébore virorum missus nec ipse éruptionum cohortium sustinuit. Liv. (c.) Idem is sometimes repeated in the sense of 'at once,' denoting the union of qualities which might be thought incompatible; as, Fuire quidam qui indem ornāte ildem verside dicerent, There have been some who could speak at once

elegantly and artfully. Cic.

(d.) "The same as' is variously expressed in Latin, by idem with qui, ac or adque, quam, quasi, ut or cum; as, Verres tdem est qui fut semper, Verres is the same as he has always been. Cic. Vita est eadom ac fuit. Liv. Dispitationem exploitmus isidem fère verbis ut actum est. Cic. Eandem constituit potestimem quam si, etc. Cic. Eodem floo res est, quiasi es péctima legata non esset. Id. Hunc épo codem mêcum patre génitum, etc. So also poetically with the dative; as, Eadem allis soptiet quiète est. Lucr. Cf. § 22, R. 7.

## IPSE, INTENSIVE OR ADJUNCTIVE.

REM. 28. (a.) Ip s.e., when used with a substantive pronoun taken reflexively, agrees either with such pronoun or with the subject of the proposition, according as either is emphatic; as, Agam per me ipse, I will do it myself. Cic. Non êgeo médicina (i.e. ut diti me consolentur); me ipse consolor. Cic. Accasando eum, a cipis cridditate cosmet ipsi armis vindicusts. Liv.—Cn. Pompeium omnibus, Lentalum mihi ipsi antépono. Cic. Fac ut te ipsum custòdias. Id. Déforme est de se ipsum prædicare. Id.—But Cicero often construes ipse as the subject, even where the emphasis belongs to the object; as, Quid est nêgôtii continère eos, quidus præsis, si te lipse contineas?

(b.) When ipse is joined with a possessive pronoun used reflexively, it usually takes the case of the subject; as, Meam ipse ligem nightoo; not meam ipsius, according to § 211, R.3, (a.) So, Sie as sriptis cognosci ipsi sais potuissent. Cic. Eam fraudem restră ipsi virtite vitastis. Liv. But the genitive is necessary when the possessive does not refer to the subject; as, Thá ipsius causa hoc fêct. And it is sometimes found where the case of the subject should be used; as, Conjecturam de two ipsius studio cépéris, instead of ipse.—(c.) Ipse is sometimes used as reflexive without sai; as, Omnes boni, quantum in piss fuit, Castrem occidional control of the cont

runt. Cic.

(d.) I psc, with nouns denoting time or number, expresses exactness, and may be rendered, just, 'precisely'; or 'very,' 'only'; as, Dyrrháchio sum profectus ipso illo die, quo lex est data de nobis, on the very day. Cic. Triginta dies brant ipsi, quum has dabam literus, per quos nullas a vobis accipiram, just thirty days. Id. Et quisquam dabitabit—quam facile império atque exercitu socios et rectigalia conservaturus sit, qui ipso nomine ac rumbre défendèrit, by his very name, or, by his name only. Id.

#### GENERAL RELATIVES.

REM. 29. Quicumque, quisquis, and the other general relatives (see § 139,5, R., are, in classical prose, always connected with a verb, and form the protasis. Quicumque is commonly used as an adjective, and quisquis as a substantive; but the neuter quodcumque is used as a substantive with a following genitive; as, Quodcumque militum; and, on the other hand, quisquis is rarely an adjective; as, Quisquis erit vitæ color. Hor.; and even the neuter quidquid is used in the same manner; as, Quisquis honos tumuli, quidquid solamen humandi est. Virg. Quicumque seems sometimes even in Cicero equivalent to omnis or quivis; as, Qua sanari poterunt, quacumque ratione sanabo, What can be cured, I will cure by every possible means. Cic. Yet possum is rather to be supplied; - in whatever way I can.' But in later writers quicumque is frequently used in the absolute sense for quivis or quilibet; as, Ciceronem cuicumque eorum fortiter opposuërim. Quint. Qualiscumque and quantuscumque are likewise used in an absolute sense by ellipsis; as, Tu non concupiaces quanticumque ad libertatem pervenire? At any price, be it ever so high. Sen. So quisquis is occasionally used, not as a relative, but as an indefinite pronoun .- Siquis often seems to stand as a relative, like the Greek size for seze, 'whoever'; but it always contains the idea of 'perhaps'; as, Nuda fere Alpium căcumina sunt, et si quid est pābuli, obruunt nīves. Liv.

#### INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

REM. 30. (a.) Aliquis and quispiam are particular and affirmative, corresponding to the English some one; as, Hereditas est pecunia, qua morte alicujus ad quempiam pervenit jure, An inheritance is property which, at the death of some one, falls to some (other) one by law. Cic. Multi sine doctrina allquid omnium générum et artium conséquentur. Id.

(b.) Aliquis is more emphatic than the indefinite pronoun quis. (See § 137, (3.) Hence aliquis stands by itself, but quis is commonly connected with certain conjunctions or relative words, but these are sometimes separated from it by one or more words. Sometimes, however, quis is used without such conjunctions or relatives; as, Morbus aut egestas aut quid ejusmodi. Cic. Détrahère quid de ăliquo. Id. Injūriam cui făcere. Id. So, Dixerit quis, Some one might say. But even after those conjunctions which usually require quis, aliquis is used when employed antithetically and of course emphatically; as, Timebat Pompeius omnia, ne ăliquid vos timeretis. Cic. In English the emphasis of ăliquis is sometimes expressed by 'really'; as, Sensus moriendi, si aliquis esse potest, is ad exiguum tempus durut. Cic .- Quispiam, also, is sometimes used like quis after si, etc., and sometimes stands alone; as, Quæret fortasse quispiam.

REM. 31. (a.) Quisquam, 'any one,' and ullus, 'any,' are universal. Like umquam and usquam they are used in propositions which involve a universal negative, or which express an interrogation with a negative force, or a condition (usually with si or quasi); also, after comparatives, after the advert vix, and the preposition sine; as. Neque ex castris Catilina quisquam omnium discesserut, Nor had any one departed from the camp of Catiline. Sall. Nec ullo casu potest contingere, ut ulia intermissio fiat officii. Cic. An quisquam potest sine perturbātione mentis irasci? Id. Tetrior hac tyrannus Syrācūsānis fuit, quam quisquam sūpēriorum. Id. Vix quidquam spei est. Sen. But after the dependent negative particles ne, neve, and the negative interrogative particle num, quis and

not quisquam is used.

(b.) But quisquam and ullus after si are often used not in a negative sense, but instead of aliquis or quis, serving only to increase the indefiniteness which would be implied in the latter pronouns; as, Aut enim nemo, quod quidem magis crēdo, aut, si quisquam, ille săpiens fuit, if any man. Cic. Hence, ultimately, even without si, where the indefiniteness is to be made emphatic, quisquam, ullus, umquam and usquam were used; as, Quamdiu quisquam erit, qui te defendére audeat, vires. Cic. Bellum maxime omnium mémorabile, que umquam gesta sunt, scripturus sum. Tac.

(c.) Ullus is properly an adjective, but quisquam is commonly used without a noun, except it is a word denoting a person; as, Cuiquam cīri, To any citizen. Cajusquam oratoris éloquentium. Hence quisquam corresponds to the substantive nemo and ullus to the adjective nullus.  $N\bar{\epsilon}$ mo is often used with other substantives denoting male persons so as to become equivalent to the adjective nullus; as, nemo pictor, nemo adolescens, and even homo nemo. Cic. Quisquam is sometimes used in a similar manner; as, quisquam homo, quisquam civis. On the other hand nullus and ullus are used as substantives instead of nemo and quisquam, especially the genitive nullius and the ablative nullo.

Rem. 32. (a.) A lius, like ullus, though properly an adjective, is sometimes used like a pronoun. It is often repeated, or joined with an adverb derived from it, in the same proposition, which may be translated by two separate propositions, commencing respectively with 'one...another'; as, Aliud aliis videtur optimum, One thing seems best to one, another to another. Cic. Aliis aliunde périculum est, Danger threatens one from one source, another from another; or, Danger threatens different persons from different sources. Ter. Diŏnysium ăliter cum ăliis de nobis locutum audicham. Cic.—Alter is used in the same manner when only two persons are spoken of, but there are no adverbs derived from it; as, Alter in alterum causam conférunt, They accuse each other.

(b.) Alius, repeated in different propositions, is also translated 'one...another'; as Aliud āgitur, aliud simālātur, One thing is done, another pretended. Cio. Aliter logatur, aliter scribit, like diter ac or utque, He speaks otherwise than

he writes. So Aliud loquitur, aliud scribit.

(c) Uterque, 'cachof two,' is always used by Cicero in the singular number, when only two individuals are spoken of. Its plural, utrique, is used only when each of two parties consists of several individuals; as, Macedones—Tyri, utrique. But in other good proce writers the plural utrique is occasionally used in speuking of only two; as, Utrique Dionigsii. No. C. € 200, R. 11, (4.)

REM. 33. (a.) Quidam differs from  $\delta lqmis$  by implying that a person or thing, though indefinitely described, is definitely known; as, Quidam de collègis nostris. A certain one of our colleagues. Cic. Scis me quodam tempore Mêt-

apontum vēnisse tēcum. Id.

(b.) Quidam is sometimes used for some, as opposed to the whole, or to others; as, Excessivant urbe quidam, alii mortem sibi consciverant, Some departed from the city, others destroyed themselves. Liv. Hence it is used to soften an expression, where in English we say so to speak, etc.; as, Milto est quoddam cellum nätüräle cun corro. A kind of natural warfare. Cic. Fuit enim illud quoddam cacum tempus servitatis. Id. Etenim omnes artes quae ad hümânitâtem pertiment, habent quoddam commine vin ülum et quasi cognitione quidam inter se continentur. Id.—Tamquam is used for the same purpose, and also ut tia dicam.

REM. 34. Quin's and pullibet, 'uny one,' and ūnusquisque, 'each,' are universal and absolute; as, Omnia sunt ejusmodi quivis ut perspicère possit, All are of such a nature that any one can perceive. Cie. Hic opud majores nostros adhibbour périlus, nunc quilibet. Id. Nătăra ūnumquenque trâhit ad discendum. A negative joined with then denies only the universality which they imply; as, Non cuivis hömin contingit addre Cirinthum, i. e. not to every man without distinction. Hor. Cuiquam would have made the negation universal.

REM. 35. (a.) Qu'is que signifies each, erery one, distributively or relatively, and generally stands without a noun; as, Quod cuique obtigit, id quisque tèneat, Let each one keep what has fullen to each. Cic. Hence it is used particularly after relative and interrogative pronouns and adverbs; as, Sejno pollicetur stormagnae care fore, ut omniae ciritatibus, que ediusque fuissent, restituérentur. Cic. Ut preadic posset, quid cuique érenturum, et quo quisque fato natus esset. Id. Cur f'int quidque quærus: recte omnino. Id. Quo quisque est adlertior, loc doct laboriosius. Id. Ut quisque optime dicit, ita maxime dicendi difficultatem timet. Id. And hence the expression quolusquisque in the sense of 'how few among all.' It is also used distributively after numerals; as, Décimus quisque sorte lectus, Every tenth man. Quinto quoque anno, In every fith year. So also after susus; as, Sui cuique libéri câvissimi: suum cuique plâtet. (Respecting the order of the words, cf. § 279, 14: and respecting quisque in the nonninative in apposition to a noun or pronoun in the ablative absolute or in the accusative with the infinitive, see § 204, R. 10.)

(b.) Quisque with a superlative, either in the singular or the plural, denotes universality, and is generally equivalent to omnes with the positive; as, doctasimus quisque, Every learned man, i. e. all the learned; but often, also, in connection with the verb, it retains the idea of a reciprocal comparison, and is to be rendered by the superlative; as, In omni arte optimum quidque rairsismum, The best is the rarest. Cic. Altissima quavque fumina minimo sono labuntur, The deepest rivers flow with the least sound. Curt. With primas, it denotes the first possible; as, Primo quoque tempore, As soon as possible. Cic.

#### Possessives.

REM. 36. (a.) The possessive pronouns meus, tuns, suns, noster, and rester, are joined to nouns, to indicate an action or possession of the persons denoted by their primitives; as, Tutus amor meus est tibi, My love is secure to you. Ovid. Tuam ricem dokree soleo. Cic.—These pronouns, as in English, when belonging to two substantives, are generally expressed but once, even when the substantives are of different genders; as, amor tuns ac judicium de me.

(b.) But these pronouns are sometimes used when the persons to which they are the objects of an action, feeling, etc.; as, Nam nêque tuā nêgligentiā, nêque bilo id fecit tuo, For he did it neither through neglect nor hatred of you.

Ter. Sec § 211, R. 3.

- (c.) The possessive pronouns, especially when used as reflexives, are often omitted; as, Quo vérertar? in patriam? seil. meam, Whither shall I return? to (my) country? Ovid. Dextrà makera porvezit, seil. ma. Id. But they are expressed when emphasis or contrast is intended, where in English 'own' might be added to the pronoun; as, Eyo mon dicam, timen id potéritis cum dinimis vestris cápitâre. Cie.
- (d.) When besides the person of the subject, that of a remote object also occurs in the proposition, the possessive pronoun will refer to the latter; as, Patris aimman milit recontilisti, i. e. patris mei animum rather than tai.
- (e.) As reflexives, meus, etc., are translated my, thy, his, her, its, our, your, their; or my own, thy own, his own, etc.

### THE REFLEXIVES SUI AND SUUS.

§ **208.** Rem. 37. (a.) Sui and suus properly refer to the subject of the proposition in which they stand; as,

Oppidāni făcinus in se ac suos fædum consciscunt, The citizens decide on a foul crime against themselves and their triends. Liv.

(b.) They continue to be used in successive clauses, if the subject remains the same; as,

Ipse se quisque diligit, non ut diliquam a se ipse mercédem exigat căritătis sux, sed quod per se sibi quisque cărus est. Cic.

(1.) In dependent clauses, in which the subject does not remain the same, the reflexives are commonly used in references to the leading subject, when the thoughts, language, purposes, etc., of that subject are stated; as,

Ariovistus previtarit, non-sise Gallis, sed Gallos sibi bellum intilizes, Ariovistus declared that he had not made war upon the Gauls, but the Gauls upon him. Caes. Homerum Globplomia: irrem esse dicent suum, The Colophomians say that Homer is their citizen. Cie. Tyrennas pătieit ut se ad ânâttitam tertium ascribēreut. It. But sometimes, to avoid ambiguity, he eases of sor ille are used in such clauses in references to the leading subject, as, Helectii sise Allobroges vi cautăros existmâbaut, ut per suos fines eos îre pătierum. Caes. Here suos refers to the subject of the dependent clause, and eos to Helectii, the subject of the leading clause. And sometimes, even in the same dependent clause, two reflexive pronouns are used, referring to different persons; as, Seythe pētibant, ut regis sui filium mătrimonio sibi jungieret. Curi

(2.) If, however, the leading subject, whose thoughts, etc., are expressed, is indefinite, the reflexives relate to the subject of a dependent clause; as,

Mēdēam prædieant (scil. hömines) in füyā frātris sui membra in iis lócis, quā se pārens persőquérőtir, dissípāvisse. Cic. İpsum rēgem trādunt öpērātum his sacris se ab līdisse. Liv.

(3.) (a.) When the leading verb is in the passive voice, the reflexive often refers not to its subject, but to that which would be its subject in the active voice; as,

A Cesare invitor ut sim sibi legatus, i. e. Cesar me invitat, I am invited by Casar to become his lieutenaut. Cic.

(b) So when the subject is a thing without life, the reflexive may relate to some other word in the sentence, which denotes a thing having life; as,

Camum tam f'ida custodia quid significat ăliud, nisi se ad hominum commoditătes esse générates? Cic.

(4.) Instead of sui and suus, whether referring to a leading or a subordinate subject, ipse is sometimes used, to avoid ambiguity from the similarity of both numbers of sui, and also to mark more emphatically than suus, the person to whom it relates; as,

Jugurtha ligatos misit, qui ipsi liberisque vitam petirent, Jugurtha sent ambassadors to ask life for himself and his children. Sall. Ea molestissime ferre

homines debent, quæ ipsorum culpā contracta sunt.

(5.) In the plaral number, with *inter*, se only is used, if the person or thing referred to is in the nominative or accusative; se or *ipse*, if in any other case; as,

Fratres inter se quam formă, tum môribus similes, Brothers resembling each other both in person and character. Cic. Fêrus inter sêse conclida mâtăra. Cic. Incidunt dippa a doctis étam inter poso mâtuo reprehensa. Quint.

(6.) (a.) When reference is made not to the subject of the proposition, but to some other person or thing, hic, is, or ille, is generally used, except in the cases above specified; as,

Themistocles servum ad Xerxem misit, ut ei nuntiaret, suis verbis, adversarios ein finja esse, Themistocles sent this servant to Xerxes, to inform him (Xerxes), in his (Themistocles') name, that his (Xerxes') enemies were upon

the point of flight. Nep.

(h.) But when no ambiguity would arise, and especially when the verb is of the first or second person, sui and suus sometimes take the place of the demonstrative pronouns; as,

Suam rem sibi salvam sistam, I will restore his property entire to him. Plaut.

(c.) On the contrary, the demonstratives are sometimes used for the reflexives; as,

Helvētii persuādent Raurācis, nt ūnā cum iis prôficiscantur, The Helvetii persuādet he Rauracis to go with them. Cas.—In some instances, a reflexive and a demonstrative are used in reference to the same person; as, lu se gessit (scil. Ligārius) ut ei pācem esse expēdiret. Cic. C. Claudii ôrantis per sui frārirs pārentispue ējus mānes. Liv.—Sometines the reflexives refer to different subjects in the same sentence; as, Ariôristus respondit, nēminem sēcum sīne suū pernīcie contendisse (Cas.); where se refers to Ariovistus, and suā to nēminem.

(7.) (a.) Suus often refers to a word in the predicate of a sentence, and is then usually placed after it; as,

Hune cives sui ex urbe ij cerunt, Him his fellow citizens banished from the city. Cic. Titarius quum procul Ambiorigem, suos cohortantem, conspexisset. Cæs.

(b.) Suus, and not hūjus, is used when a noun is omitted; as, Octārius quem sui (scil. āmīci) Casārem sālātābant, Octavius, whom his fol-

lowers saluted as Cæsar.

(c.) Suus is also commonly used when two nouns are coupled by

cum but not when they are connected by a conjunction; as,

Ptolemons amicos Demetris cum suis robus dimisit, Ptolemy dismissed the
friends of Demetrius with their effects, Just.

(8.) Suus sometimes denotes fit, fuvorable; as,

Sunt et sun donn pirenti, There are likewise for my father suitable presents. Virg. Ut liberator ille pôpali Rômâni opperivitur tempôra sua. Liv. Alphèwis alébūtur popalo sane suo. Cic. Sometimes it signifies peculaur; us, Molles sua tara Sâbei, scil. mittent, i. e. the frankincense for which their country was famous. Virg. Fessospue sôpor suus occipal artus. Id.

## NOMINATIVE.

## SUBJECT-NOMINATIVE AND VERB.

§ **209.** (a.) The noun or pronoun which is the subject of a finite verb is put in the nominative.

Note I. (a.) A verb in any mood except the infinitive is called a finite verb. (b.) In historical writing the nominative is sometimes joined with the present infinitive instead of the imperfect indicative. Cf. R. 5.

(b.) A verb agrees with its subject-nominative, in number and person; as,

Ego ligo, I read.
Tu scrībis, Thou writest.
Equus currit, The horse runs.

Nos légimus, We read. Vos scribitis, You write. Equi currunt, Horses run.

Note 2. The imperative singular is sometimes used in addressing several persons; as, Huc natus adjice septem, seil. cos, Thibaides. Ovid. Met. 6, 182. So Adde difectionen Raile, seil. ros, milites. Liv. 26, 41.

REMARK 1. (a.) The nominatives \( \tilde{v}go, tu, nos, vos, \) are seldom expressed, the termination of the verb sufficiently marking the person; as,

Cupio, I desire; rīvis, thou livest; habemus, we have. See § 147, 3.

(b.) But when emphasis or opposition is intended, the nominatives of the first and second persons are expressed; as, Ego rêgos ôfici, vos tigramus introductis, I banished kings, you introduce tyrants. Auct. ad Her. Nos, nos, dico aperte, consides d'esúmus. Cic. Tu es putrônus, tu pater. Ter. In indignant questions and audiresses tu is expressed; as, Tu in forum produce, tu lucem conspicère, tu in horum conspectum vénire conâris? Auct. ad Her.

Rem. 2. The nominative of the third person is often omitted:-

(1.) When it has been expressed in a preceding proposition:

(a.) As nominative: as, Misa pröfluit ex monte Visigo, et in Oceanum influit. Cass; or (b) in an oblique case; as, Carsôrem misirumt, ut id muntiaret, seil, carsor. Nep.: or (c) in a possessive adjective; as, Et vireor quo se Junônia revtant Hospitia; haud tanto cessabit caráine rérum, seil illa, i. e. Jūnō. Virg En. I. 672.

(2.) When it is a general word for person or thing:-

Thus hômines is often omitted before aiunt, dicunt, férunt, etc.; as, Ut aiunt, As they say. Cic. Maxime admirantur eum, qui péainia non môrclur. Id.—So bêne est, bêne hiabet or bêne âgitur, It is well; as, Nî rules, bêne est, ego valeo. Cic. Quam mēlius est, grātālor dis. Afran. Optūme habet, Nothing can be better. Plant. Bêne habet: jacta sunt findāmenta difensionis. Cic. Bêne agitur pro noria. Plant.

Note 3. This omission of the nominative is common in the clause precedin a relative; as, Qui Bărium non ōili, ânet tuc carmina, Mæri, scil. hômo, Lethim who hates not Bavius, love your verses, Mævius. Virg, Vustătur agri quodbiter urbem ac Füdras est, scil. id spătium. Liv. Sam quos jūcat...scil. hômines,
There are (those) whom it delights. Hor. Est qui nec vétéris pōcăla Mussici
spernit, scil. hômo. Hor. Here sunt quos and est qui are equivalent to quidam,
ditquis, or āliqui. So, Est quod graudeas, There is (reason) why you should rejoice. Cic. Noque érat cur fullère rellent. Ovid. Est ubi id roleat. Cic. Est,
quam non est situs, etc. Auct. ad Her. In the latter cases, the adverbs are
equivalent to in quo, scil. lôco, tempore.

REM. 3. (1.) The nominative is wanting before verbs denoting the state of the weather, or the operations of nature; as,

Fulgărat, It lightens. Plin. Ningit, It snows. Virg. Lăcescebat, It was growing light. Liv. Jam advesperascit. Cic.

(2.) The nominative is also wanting before the third person singular of the passive of neuter verbs, and of active verbs used impersonally; as,

Făvētur tibi a me, Thou art favored by me. Fjus ōrādiōni vehēmenter ab omni-tur reclāmātum est. Cic. Proinde ut bēne riritur, diu rivitur. Plaut. Ad exi-tur ventum est. Sen. Actum est de impērio. See § 184, 2: and cf. § 229, R. 5, (b.)

Note 4. A nominative, however, is expressed before the passive of some neuter verbs, which, in the active voice, are followed by an accusative; as, Pugna pugnāta est. Cic. See § 232, (1.)

(3.) It is wanting also before the neuter of the future passive participle with est; as,

Si vis me flère dolendum est primum ipsi tibi, If you wish me to weep, you yourself must first grieve. Hor. Orandum est, ut sit mens sana in corpore sano. Juv. Ad villam revertendum est. Cic.

(4.) The nominative is also wanting before the impersonal verbs miseret, panitet, pudet, tædet, and piget; as,

Eos ineptiarum panitet, They repent of their follies. Cic. Miseret te ăliorum, tui te nec miseret nec pudet. Plaut. Me civitatis morum piget tædetque. Sall .-In such examples, the sense will sometimes permit us to supply Jordana, condi-tio, némôria, etc. So in the expression, Venit in mentem, It came into midd; as, In mentem vénit de spéculo, scil. cogitatio, etc. Plaut.—An infinitive or a subjunctive clause sometimes forms the subject of these verbs; as, Te id nullo modo puduit facere, To do that by no means shamed you. Ter. Non paniet me, quantum profecerim. Cic.

(5.) The subject of the verb is sometimes an infinitive or a neuter participle (either alone or with other words), one or more propositions, or an adverb. (Cf. § 202, R. 2 and 3: and § 274, R. 5, (b.) The verb is then in the third person singular; as,

Văcăre culpă magnum est sălătium, To be free from fault is a great consolation. Năque est te iallere quidquam, To deceive you in any thing is not (possible.) Virg. Mentiri non est meum. Plaut. Te non istud audivisse mīrum est, That you have not heard that is wonderful. Cic. 'Summum jus, sunma injūria, factum est jum tritum esrmone proverbium. Id. Ni degeneratum in aliis hui quoque decori officieste. Liv. (Cf. 274, R. 5, (b.) Sin est ut velis maniere illam apud te. Ter. Nec profuit Higher crescère per damnum, geminasque exceptival provincia de la consistent de l resumere vires. Ovid. Dic mihi, cras istud, Postume, quando venit? Tell me, Postumus, when does that to-morrow come? Mart. Parumne campis atque Neptūno super fūsum est Latini sanguinis? Hor.

(a.) This construction is especially common with impersonal verbs; as, Oratorem irasci non décet, That an orator should be angry, is not becoming. Cic. Hoo fièri et oportet et opus est. Id. Me pedibus d'életat claudère verba, Hor. Intèrest omnium recte facère. Cic. Cisu accidit, ut, id quod Rôme audièrat primus nuntiàret. Id. Sometimes a neuter pronoun is interposed between a proposition and its verb; as, Impūne facere que libet, id est regem esse. Sall. Cf. § 206, (13,) (a.)

(6.) The nominative is also wanting before potest, capit or captum est, incipit, dēsinit, dēbet, solet, and vidētur, when followed by the infinitive of an impersonal verb; as,

Pigëre eum facti cæpit, It began to repent him (i. e. he began to repent) of his conduct. Just. Sipientia est ūna, quā praceptrice, in tranquillitāte vivi pōtest. Cic. Tædere solde tārāvo simpendit. Quint.

## REM. 4. The verb is sometimes omitted; as,

Di méliòra piis, scil. dent or rélint, May the gods grant better things to the pious. Virg. Vérum hac hactinus, scil. dizimus. Cic. Pertineo is understood in such expressions as nithi ad me, nithil ad ren, if Quid hoc ad Epicarum? What does this concern Epicurus? Quorsus hac? i. e. quorsus hac pertinent? What is that for?-Părābo is to be supplied, in Quo mili hanc rem? Of what use is this to me? and, Unde mihi aliquam rem? Whence am I to get any thing? as, Quo mihi bibliothecas? Sen. Unde mihi lapidem? Hor. A tense of facio is often to be supplied, as in Recte ille, mellus hi; Bene Chrysippus, qui docet. Cic. Nihil per vim umquam Clodius, omnia per vim Milo. Id. Quæ quum dixisset, Cotta finem. Id. So, also in the phrases nihil āliud quam; quid āliud quam; nihil praterquam, which signify merely'; as, Tisophernes nihil āliud quam bellum comparācit. Nep. This verb is in like manner omitted with mihi amplius quam; nihil minus quam, and in the phrase si nihil aliud .- Ait or inquit is sometimes omitted in introducing the direct words of another, and more frequently in relating a connected conversation; as, Tum ille; hic égo; huic égo. Dīcit is sometimes omitted in quoting a person's words; as, Scite Chrysippus: ut glúdii causă văginam, sic præter mundum cetera omnia ăliorum causă esse generata. Cic. -After per in adjurations oro, rogo or precor is often omitted; as, Per ego vos deos patrios, vindicate ab ultimo dedecore nomen gentemque Persarum; i. e. per deos patrios vos oro, vindicate. Curt. This omission is most common with the copula sum; as, Nam Polydorus ego, scil. sum, For I am Polydorus. Virg. And so est and sunt are often omitted with predicate adjectives, and especially in proverbial phrases; as, Quot homines tot sententiæ. Ter. Omnia præclara raru, scil. sunt. Cic. So also est and sunt are often omitted in the compound tenses of the passive voice; as, Agro mulctati, scil. sunt. Liv. Cf. § 270, R. 3.

Note 5. In Latin, as in English, a verb is often joined to one of two connected nominatives and understood with the other, and that even when the persons are different; as, māqis êqo te āmo, quam tu me, scil. āmos. After a negative verb a corresponding positive verb is sometimes to be supplied; as, after nego, āco, after vēto, jūbeo, and in this case et takes the signification of sed. Cf. § 323. 1. (2.), (b.)

Note 6. Sometimes, when the verb of an appended proposition is omitted, its subject is attracted to the case of a noun in the leading proposition with which is joined a participle of the onitted verb; as, \*Hambiad Minicimm, magistram Equitum, pori ac dictatorem dolo productum in pratium, fügärit, i. e. pāri ac dictator dolo productus fireta. Nen. Hann. 5. So Liv. 34, 32.

REM. 5. In the historic style the nominative is sometimes found with the present infinitive; as,

Interim quotidie Cesar Æduos frümentum flägstäre, Meanwhile Cæsar was daily demanding corn of the Ædui. Cæs. Nos pávidi trepidäre métu. Virg. Id horrendum ferri. Id.

NOTE 7. The infinitive in this construction is called the historical infinitive, and is used instead of the imperfect indicative to express in a lively manner a continued or repeated action or condition.

REM. 6. The relative qui may refer to an antecedent either of the first, second, or third person; and its verb takes the person of the antecedent; as,

Ego qui ligo, I who read. Tu qui scribis, Thou who writest. Equus qui currit, The horse which runs. Vos qui quæritis, You who ask.

REM. 7. (a.). Verbs in the first person plural, and the second person singular, are sometimes used to express general truths; as,

Quam multa fáctmus causă ămicōrum! How many things we do (i. e. men do) for the sake of friends! Cic. Si vis me flêre, dóleudum est primum ipsi tibi, Whoever wishes me, etc. Hor.

(b.) Nos is often used for égo, and noster for meus; and even when the pronoun is not expressed, the verb is frequently put in the first person plural instend of the first person singular. The genitive nostri is used for mei, but nostrim always expresses a real plurality.

Rem. 8. The accusative is sometimes used for the nominative by attraction. See § 206, (6.) (b.)

Rem. 9. The verb sometimes agrees with the predicate-nominative, especially if it precedes the verb; as, Amantium irve amovis integratio est, The quarrels of lovers are a renewal of love. Ter. Lôca, que proxima Carthághnen, Númidin appellatur. Sall. And sometimes it agrees with the nearest subject of a sub-ordinate sentence; as, Sed ei căriora semper omnia, quam décus aique pâdicitia fuit. Sall. Cat. 25.

REM. 10. In cases of apposition, the verb commonly agrees with the noun which is to be explained; as, Tullibla, delicie nostrae, Högitat. Cic. But sometimes the verb agrees, not with the principal nominative, but with a nearer noun in apposition to it; as, Tangri, civitas Galliae, fontem habet insignem, The Tungri, a state of Gaul, has a remarkable fountain. Plin. Córioli oppidum captum (est). Liv.

REM. 11. A collective noun has sometimes, especially in poetry, a plural verb; as,

Pars ěpülis öněrant mensas, Part load the tables with food. Virg. Turba runnt. Ovid. Alvia turba těnent; věniunt lève vulgus euntque. Id.

(1) (a) A plural verb, joined to a collective noun, usually expresses the action, etc., of the individuals which that noun denotes. In Cicero, Sallust, and Cassar, this construction scarcely occurs in simple sentences; but it is often used, when the subject of the verb is expressed not in its own, but in preceding clause; as, the idea giver handno civid, quad in terra collocati sint, because they (scil. houtnes) live on earth. Cic. In Livy it occurs more frequently; as, Locros omnis multitade abeunt.

(b) Abstract nouns are sometimes used collectively, instead of their concretes; as, nobilities for nobiles, jurentus for jurines, vicinia for vicini, servitium for servi, levis urmatiar for leviter armati, etc. (c.) Miles, epacs, pédes, and similar words are sometimes used collectively for the soldiery, the cavalry, etc.

(2.) When two or more clauses have the same collective noun as their subject, the verb is frequently singular in the former, and plural in the latter; as, Janu ne note quidem turba ex co love dilabebatur, refractavasque care érem minabantur. Liv. Gens eddem, que te crâdelt Daunta bello inséquitur, nos si pellant, milit objéres crédant. Vigs.

(3.) Tunium, followed by a genitive plural, has sometimes a plural verb, like a collective noun; as, Quid huc tantum hóminum incēdunt? Why are so many men coming hither? Plant.

(4.) A plural verb is sometimes used, though not by Cicero, after iterque and quisque, pars...pars, ālius...ālium, and alter...altērum, on account of the idea of plurality which they involve; as, Olerque corum ex costris exercitum educum, Each of them leads his army from the camp. Cass. Intimus quisque libertorum vincti abreptique (sunt.) Tac. Alius ālium, ut prælium incipiant, circumspectant. Liv. Cl. § 207, R. 32, (c.)

Note 8. This construction may be explained by passages like the following, in which the plural is placed first, and then the singular, denoting its parts; Critri, suo quisque tempore, aderunt. Liv. Dieemtri perturbati alius in aliam partem custrorum discurrunt. Id. See § 204, R. 10.

REM. 12. Two or more nominatives singular, not in apposition, generally have a plural verb; as,

Füror früque mentem præcipitant, Fury and rage hurry on (my) mind. Virg. Dum ætıs, mētus, mūgister, prohibēbant. Ter.

(1.) If the predicate belongs to the several nominatives jointly, the verb is always plural; as, Grammatice quandam ac musice juncte fuerunt. Quint.

(2.) A verb in the singular is often used after several nominatives singular, especially if they denote things without life; as,

Mens énim, et rátio et consilium in sénibus est. Cic. Beneficentia, liberalitas, bontias, justitia funditus tollitur. Id.

Nore 9. This construction is most common when the several nominatives, as in the preceding examples, constitute, as it were, but one idea. So also the compound subject Schadus populusque Romainus has always a predicate in the singular. The same construction sometimes, especially in the poets, occurs with names of persons; as, Gorgias, Thristymidatus, Pridigioras, Pridicius, Ilippius in hönöre fuit. Cic. Quin et Promitheus et Pélopis parens dulci làborum decipitur sono. Hor. When the nominatives denote both persons and things, the verb is commonly plural; as, Cotto considum et Prompeius obsunt. Liv

(3.) When one of the nouns is plural, the verb is generally so; but sometimes it is singular, when the plural noun does not immediately precede it; as, Dii te pénâtes patrique, et patris Imãgo, et domus régia, et in dômo régâle solium, et nômen Turpánium creat vôcatque régem. Liv.

(4) When each of the nominatives is preceded by et or tum, the verb agrees with the last; as, Hoc et ratio doctis, et necessitus barbaris, et mos gentibus, et féris natura ipou prascripsit, This, reason has dictated to the learned, and necessity to barbarians, and custom to nations, and nature itself to wild beasts. Cie. Li ço, et Cicero meus flagitabit. Id. Tum actus viresque, tum àrdra gloria ânimum stimilabat. Liv. So when the subject consists of two infinitives; as, Li facère, et pati fortia, Românum est. Cie. Cinus et alter always takes a singular verb; as, Dicit ânus et alter brêviter. Cie. Unus et alter assuitur pannus. Hor.

(5.) When the nominatives are connected by aut, sometimes the plural, but commonly the singular, is used; as,

Si Sicrătes aut Antisthènes dicèret, If Socrates or Antisthenes should say. Cic. Ut quosque studium prirătim aut grătia occupaverunt. Liv.

(a.) The plural is necessary with disjunctives, if the subject includes the first or second person: as, Quod in Dieenvivis néque èque desar habiti essemus. Cic.—(b.) With aut...aut and nec...nec the singular is preferred, but with seu...seu and tam...quam the verb is in the plural.

(6.) A nominative singular, joined to an ablative by the preposition cum, sometimes has a singular but more frequently a plural verb; as, Dómltius cum Messilia certus esse videbatur. Cic. Boechus, cum péditibus, postrémam Rômánorum áciem invidunt, Boechus, with his foot-soldiers, attacks the rear of the Roman army. Sall. I pse dux, cum âltquof principibus, cápituntur. Liv.

(7.) If the nominatives are of different persons, the verb is of the first person rather than the second or third, and of the second rather than the third; as,

Si tu et Tullia valītis, ēgo et Cicēro valēmus, If von and Tullia are well, Ciccro and I are well. Cic. Hec nêque ēgo nêque tu fēcimus. Ter. Ego pōpulussue Rōmānus bellum jūdīteo fācioque. Liv.

(a.) Yet sometimes the verb agrees in number and person with the nearest nominative, and is understood with the other; as, Vos ipsi et sënatus fréquens restitit. This is always the case when the action of the verb is qualified with reference to each nominative separately; as, Ego misbre the feliciter vivis.

REM. 13. The interjections en, ecce, and O, are sometimes followed by the nominative; as,

En Priamus! Lo Priam! Virg. En êgo, vester Ascănius. Id. Ecce homo Catienus! Cic. Ecce tuæ litëræ. Id. O vir fortis atque ămicus! Ter.

#### PREDICATE-NOMINATIVE.

§ 210.—A noun in the predicate, after a verb neuter or passive, is put in the same case as the subject, when it denotes the same person or thing; as,

(a) When the subject is in the nominative; Pra f fror brevis est, Anger is a short madness. Hor. Ego recor Lyconides, I am called Lyconides. Plant, Ego incide reginn, I walk a queen. Virg. Cains et Lacius frares fuerum. Cic.—So (b.) when the subject is in the accusative with the infinitive; Judicem me esse volo. Cic.

(c.) Sometimes also a dative, denoting the same object, both precedes and follows a verb neuter or passive. See § 227, N.—And (d.) a predicate ablative sometimes follows passive participles of choosing, naming, etc.; as, Consultation.

bus certioribus factis. Liv. See § 257, R. 11.

(c.) If the predicate noun has a form of the same gender as the subject, it takes that form; as, Licentia corruptrix est morum. Cf. § 204, R. 2.—(f.) But if the subject is neuter, the noun of the predicate, if it has both a masculine and a feminine form, takes the former; as, Tempus vita magister est.

(g.) An infinitive may supply the place of a predicate nominative. See § 269,

R. 4.

- KWARK 1. (a.) Adjectives, adjective pronouns, and participles, standing in the predicate, after verbs neuter or passive, and relating to the subject, agree with it in gender, number, and case.
- (b.) When the subject consists of two or more nouns, the gender and number of such predicate adjectives are determined by § 205, R. 2.
- REM. 2. (a.) The noun in the predicate sometimes differs in gender and number from the subject; as, Sanguis *èrant bierima*, Her tears were blood. Ovid. Captivi militum præda fuerunt. Liv.
- (b.) So when a subject in the singular is followed by an ablative with cum, the predicate is plural; as, Exsules esse jubet L. Tarquinium cum conjuge et libers. Liv.
- Rem. 3. The verbs which most frequently have a noun, etc., in the predicate agreeing in case, etc., with their subject, are:—
- (1.) The copula sum; as, Ego Jovis sum filius. Plant. Disce esse pater. Ter. The predicate with sum may be an adverb of place, manner, etc.; as, Quod est longe alter. Cic. Rectissime sumt āpud te omnia, Every thing with you is in a very good condition. Id.; or a noun in an oblique case; as, Numen sine ture est. Ovid. Sum nöbis mita pōma. Virg.
- (2.) Certain neuter verbs denoting existence, position, motion, etc.; as, tro, essisto, appäreo, cădo, eo, erdo, fujoi, niccio, jāceo, mâneo, sêdeo, sto, rênio, etc. Thus, Rex circuibut pèdes, The king went round on foot. Plin. Quos juhicabat non posse britires eradêre. Cic. Ego huic cause patronus exstit. Cic. Qui fit, ut nêmo contentus vivat?
  - (3.) The passive of verbs denoting,
- (a.) To name or call; as, appellor, dicor, nominor, nuncipor, perhibeor, solutor, scribor, viscribor, viscri. Thus, Cognomine Justus est appellatus, He was called by the surname Just. Nep. Aristous ôlive dictur inventor. Cic.

(b.) To choose, render, appoint, or constitute; as, constituor, even, d'elaror, d'esigner, étique, fia, reddor, rénuncior. Thus, Dux a Romainis electus est Q. Fábius. Postquam éphébus factus est. Nep. Certior factus sum.

(c) To esteem or reckon; as, censeor, cognoscor, crêdor, dêprêhendor, cristimor, dûcor, fêror, hâbeor, judicor, mêmôror, nûmêror, piacor, rêpêrior, videor. Thus, Crêdibar sanguinis auetor êgo. Ovid. Matim videri tintdus gama pêram.

prüdens, Cie.

Norte 1. With several passives of the last class, when followed by a predicate-nominative, etc., an infinitive of sum is expressed or understood; as, Amens mihi fuisse videor, I think I was beside myself. Cic. But the dative of the first person is sometimes omitted after videor; as, Sitis docuises videor, Al.—Arthus pridens esse patabitar. Id. So with droor (to be said), and perhibeor; as, Virus patrice dicéris esse pâte. Mart. Hoe ne locutus sine mercède existimer. Phaed.

NOTE 2. Audio is sometimes used by the poets like appellor; as, Tu rexque păterque audisti coram. Hor.

Rem. 4. A predicate-nominative is used after many other verbs to denote a purpose, time, or circumstance of the action, as, Comes additus £5-lides, £6-lides was added as a companion. Virg. Lipus bibanbillat necturnus. Id. Appäret liquido sublimis in adhère Nisus. Id. So with an active verb; Audri hoc puer. Cic. Săpiens nii făcit invitus. Id. Rempüblicam dêfendi ădolescens. Id. Cf. § 204, R. 1.

Note 3. Instead of the predicate-nominative, a dative of the end or purpose sometimes occurs (see § 227); sometimes an ablative with pro; as, andain pro muro est; and sometimes the ablatives bloco or in numero with a genitive; as, ille est milit parentis loco; in hostium numero babblur.

Rem. 5. The noun opus, signifying 'need,' is often used as a predicate after sum. It is, in such cases, translated by the adjectives needful, necessary, etc.; as, Dux nobis et auctor opus est. Cic. Multi opus sunt bores. Varr. (Dixit) aurum et ancillos opus esse. Ter. Usus also is occasionally so construed.

REM. 6. When the pronoun, which is the subject of an infinitive, is omitted, the case of the predicate is sometimes, in the poets, attracted into that of the subject of the verb on which the infinitive depends; as, Uxor imieti Jóvis esse nestis, i. e. te esse uxòrem. Hor. Rétalit Ajux esse Jóvis prónepos. Ovid.

### GENITIVE.

#### GENITIVE AFTER NOUNS.

\$211. A noun which limits the meaning of another noun, denoting a different person or thing, is put in the genitive; as,

Amor glóriæ, Love of glory; Arma Achillis, The arms of Achilles; Påter patriæ, The father of the country; Vitton via, The vice of anger; Němôrum custos, The guardian of the groves; Amor hôbendi, Love of possessing.

Nore 1. In the first example, \$\frac{zmor}{amor}\$ denotes love in general; \$gioriae limits the affection to the particular object, glory. Such universally is the effect of the genitive, depending upon a noun. Hence the limitation of a noun by a genitive resembles that which is effected by an adjective. In each the noun limited constitutes with its limitation only a single idea.

REMAIN I. The genitive denotes various relations, the most common of which are those of \$Sox rec; as, Rodii šohis, The rays of the sum; —Casse; as, Dolor philagrae, The pain of the gout; —Fifect; as, Artifex mundi, The Crestor of the world; —Connection; as, Pater considis, The father of the consul:—Possession; as, Domus Cassiris, The house of Cassar; —Object; as, Contain allajas rei, A thought of something; —Purpose; as, Appointus triamphi, Preparation for a triumph; —A whole; as, Pars kommun, A part

of men; this is called the partitive genitive; - Character or Quality; as, Adolescens summe andacia, A youth of the greatest boldness ;- Material or Component Parts; as, Montes auri, Mountains of gold; Acerrus scutorum, A heap of shields :- Time; as, Frümentum dierum decem, Corn for ten days. Sall.

REM. 2. The genitive is called *subjective* or active, when it denotes either that to which a thing belongs, or the subject of the action, feeling, etc., implied in the noun which it limits. It is called objective or passive, when it denotes the object affected by such action, or towards which such feeling is directed; as,

Subjective.

Objective.

Facta vīrōrum, Deeds of men. Dölor ānīmi, Grief of mind. Jūnōnis īra, The anger of Juno.

Odium vitii, Hatred of vice. Amor virtutis, Love of virtue. Desidérium ötii, Desire of leisure.

(a.) Whether a genitive is subjective or objective, is to be determined by the meaning of the words, and by their connection. Thus, providentia Dei signifies God's providence, or that exercised by him; timor Dei, the fear of God, or that exercised towards him. The same or similar words, in different connections, may express both significations. Thus, metus hostium, fear of the enemy, may mean, either the fear felt by the enemy, or that felt by their opponents. So vulnus Ulixis (Virg. En. 2, 456.) denotes the wound which Ulysses had given; vulnus Ænēæ, (Id. En. 12, 323.) that which Æneas had received.

(b.) The relation expressed by the English possessive case is subjective, while that denoted by of with its case is either subjective or objective.
(c.) The objective genitive is of very extensive use in Latin in the limitation of verbal nouns and adjectives, whatever may be the construction of the verbs from which such nouns and adjectives are derived, whether they take an ac-

cusative or some other case or even a preposition.

(d.) When ambiguity would arise from the use of the objective genitive, a preposition with an accusative or ablative is commonly used; as, Amor in rempublicam, for reinablica, Love to the state. Cic. Odium erga Romanos, for Rōmānōrum. Nep. Cura de salūte patriæ, for salūtis. Cic. Prædūtor ex sociis, for sociōrum. Sall. Sometimes both constructions are combined; as, Rēvērentia adrersus homines et optimi cujusque et réliquorum. Cic. Otl. 1, 28.

Note. A limiting genitive is sometimes used instead of a noun in apposition, especially with rox, nomen, rerbum, etc.; as, rox voluptatis, the word pleasure; nomen amiestia, the word amiestia; domini appellatio. This is usual when the genus is defined by the species; as, arbor fue, a fig-tree; flos riólæ, a violet; rirtus continentiae, the virtue of abstinence; and in geographical names; as, oppidum Antiochiae. Cf. § 204, R. 6.—Cicero frequently uses a genitive in this manner with genus and causa; as, Unum genus est corum, qui, etc. Duce sant causa, una pudoris, altera sceleris. So, also, the genitive of gerunds; as, Triste est nomen ipsum carendi, The very word to want is sad. Cic.

Rem. 3. (a.) A substantive pronoun in the genitive, limiting the meaning of a noun, is commonly objective; as,

Cūra mei, Care for me. Ovid. Pars tui, Part of thee. Id. Vestri cūram agite. Curt. This genitive is used especially with verbal substantives in or, w and io; as, Accusator mei. Cic. Nimia æstimatio sui. Id. Rationem et sui et aliorum habere. Id.

(b.) Instead of the subjective or possessive genitive of a substantive pronoun, the corresponding adjective pronoun is commonly used; as.

Liber meus, not liber mei, my book. Cura mea, My care, i. e. the care exercised by me. Cic. Tuas literus exspecto. Id. Yet the subjective genitive of a substantive pronoun sometimes occurs; as, Tui ūnius stūdio, By the zeul of yourself alone. Cic.

(c.) And not unfrequently, also, an adjective pronoun occurs instead of the objective genitive; as, Mea injaria, Injury to me. Sall. So, Imidia tua, Envy of thee. Fiducia tua, Confidence in thee. Plaut. Spes mea, The hope placed of thee. Fiducia tua, Confidence in thee. Plant. Spes mea, The hope placed in me. With causa the adjective pronoun, and never the genitive, is used; as, Meā causā, For my sake. Plaut.

Rem. 4. (a.) Instead, also, of the subjective genitive of a noun, a possessive adjective is often used: as, Causa regia, for causa regis. Cic. Herilis filius, for heri filius. Id. Evandrius ensis, for Evandri. Virg. Herculeus lübor, for Herculis. Hor. Civilis furor, for civium. Hor. So, also, for the objective genitive,

Mētus hostīlis, Fear of the enemy. Sall.

(b.) The genitive of the person implied in the adjective pronoun or possessive adjective, or an adjective agreeing with such genitive, is sometimes added as an apposition; as, Vestrā ipsorum causā hoc feci. In the poets and later prose writers a participle also is found agreeing with such implied genitive; as, Mea scripta vulgo recitare timentis. Hor. Cf. § 204, R. 4, and § 205, R. 13.

Rem. 5. In the predicate after sum, and sometimes after other verbs, the dative is used like the objective genitive; as,

Idem amor exitium pēcori (est), pēcorisque magistro. Virg. Vitis ut arboribus them amor exitum pecori (est.), pecorispite imagistro. Virg. In this passage the dative décoré and tritious aver—Tu décus omne tuis. Virg. In this passage the dative décoré and the nominative décus are used with no difference of meaning. Cf. § 227, R. 4. Auctor fui sénatin. Cic. Murema l'égatus Lücullo fuit. Id. Erit ille mihi semper deus. Virg. Huic causae patrônus exstiti. Cic. Huic égo me bello dûcem prôfiteor. Id. Se tertium l'esse) cui fâtum j'oret urbis pôtivi. Id.—Cum P. Afriction sônâtus égit, ut l'égitus trâtti prôficiscéretur. Id. Cesur légimenta gâleis milites ex vintinibus fâcire jubit. Cas. Trinôbautibus Cosar proport.—Égimentum acceptini. 12. Oued vique incline constit précidablem. impërat-frumentum exercitui. Id. Quod nëque insidiæ consuli procedebant. Sall. Quem exitum tantis malis sperarent? Id. Sanctus vir et ex sententia ambôbus, scil. qui fuit. Id. See § 227, R. 4.

Note. The dative in the preceding examples has been thought by some grammarians to depend on the nouns connected with it; as, exitium, decus, auctor, legatus, deus, patronus, etc.; by others it has been held to depend on these nouns in connection with the verbs, and not upon either separately; but the better opinion seems to be that, which makes such datives grammatically dependent upon the verbs only, though logically connected also with the nouns.

(1.) Instead, also, of the possessive genitive, a dative of the person may follow a verb, when its act has relation to the body or possessions of such person; as,

Siese omnes flentes Cæsari ad pêdes projecerunt, They all, weeping, cast themselves at the feet of Cæsar. Cæs. Cui corpus porrigitur, For whom the body, i. e. whose body, is extended. Virg. Tum vēro exarsit jūvēni dəlor ossibus ingens. Id. Transf igitur scūtum Pulfioni. Cæs.

-REM. 6. When the limiting noun denotes a property, character, or quality, it has an adjective agreeing with it, and is put either in the genitive or the ablative; as,

Vir exempli recti, A man of correct example. Liv. Adólescens summæ audāciæ, A youth of the greatest boldness. Sall. Fossa pëdum riginti, A ditch of twenty feet, (i. e. in width). Cass. Hamilear secum duxit f ilium Hunrbalem annorum novem. Nep. Athenienses d'ligunt Périclem, spectatæ virtutis virum. Just. Quinquaginta annorum imperium. Id. Iter unius dici. Cic. Pulchritudine ex-Imiā fēmīna, A woman of exquisite beauty. Cic. Maximo nātv fīlius, The eldest son. Nep. L. Catilina fuit magna vi et animi et corporis, sed ingenio malo pravoque. Sall. Spelunca infinita altitudine. Cic.—Sometimes both constructions occur in the same proposition; as, Lentülum nostrum, eximiä spe, summæ virtūtis ádólescentem. Cic.

- (1.) A genitive sometimes supplies the place of the adjective; and the noun denoting the property, etc., is then always put in the ablative; as, Est bos cervi figurā,...of the form of a stag. Cas. Uri spēcie et cēlore tauri. Id. Frātex palmi alutadīne. Plin. Clāri digti policis crasstuādne. Cæs.
- (2.) All the qualities and attributes of persons and things, whether inherent or accidental, may be thus expressed by the genitive and ablative of quality, provided the substantives are immediately connected; as, fossa quindician pédam; hômo antiquă virităte. It hence follows that such genitives and ablatives, when used to express duration of time or extent of space, are distinguished from the cases in which the accusative is required, since the latter case always follows adjectives or verbs; as, fossa quindician pêdes lata; puer dêcem annos nătus. Cf. § 236.
- (3.) Whether the genitive or the ablative of quality is preferable in particular cases, can frequently be determined only by reference to classical authority; but, in general, the genitive is used more frequently to express inherent qualities than such as are merely accidental, while the ablative is used indifferently for either purpose. In speaking of transitory qualities or conditions the ablative is always used; as, Magno timore sum, I am in great fear. Cic. Bono cinimo sum. 1d. Quanto futire dollar meriminist. 1d. Maximo biorier Servius Tullius Erat. Liv. With plural substantives the genitive is rare; while in expressions of measure it is used rather than the ablative.
- (4.) An accusative instead of a genitive of quality is used with steus (sex), gins and poulo; as, Libārārun cāpitum virile sēcus ad decem millia capta, i. e. of the male sex, instead of sexās virilis. Liv. So ginus, when joined with a pronoun, as hoc, id, illud, quod, or with onne, is used for hājus, çius, onnis, etc., gineris: as Orātiones and aliquid id genus scribire,—of that kind. Gic. Concredire nāgus hoc gēnus. Hor. So pondo is joined as an indeclinable word to the accusatives librum and librus; as, Dictitor coronan auream librum pondo in Capitālo Joir dionum pāsul,...aponud in weight, Liv. Cf. § 236, R. 7.
- (5.) The genitive môdi with an adjective pronoun supplies the place of a pronoun of quality; as, cājusmôdi libri, the same as quāles libri, what kind of books; hājusmôdi libri, i. e. tāles libri, such books. So, also, gēnēris is used, but less frequently.
- (6.) With the genitive of measure are often connected such ablatives as longitadine, littladine, etc., or in longitadinem, etc.; as, fossa decem pedam latttadine; but the genitive does not depend on these words.
- (7.) Sum may be followed by either the genitive or the ablative of quality with an ellipsis of the word limited, which, with the genitive, is homo, res, negotium, proprium or proprius, etc., and with the ablative, præditus, instructus, ornātus, etc. Cf. Rem. 8, and §§ 244, and 249, 1.
- Rem. 7. (1.) The limited noun is sometimes omitted; as, O misèree sortis! scil. hómines; O (men) of wretched fortune! Lucan. Ad Diàne, scil. adem. Ter. Hetchirs Andròmache, scil. uxor. Virg. Suspicionis vitandæ, scil. causā. Tac. So filius or filia; as, Hamibal Gisgonis.
- (2.) The omitted noun may sometimes be supplied from the preceding words; as, Cājum pēcus? an Mēlibæi? Non; vērum Ægônis, scil. pēcus. Virg. An adjective is often expressed referring to the noun omitted; as, Nullam virtus āliam mercēdem dēsidērat, præter hanc (scil. mercēdem) laudis. Cic.

REM. 8. The limited noun is often wanting in the predicate of a sentence after sum. This usually happens,

(1.) When it has been previously expressed; as,

Hec dömns est Cæsáris, This house is Cæsar's. Nõmen aura tam sæpe röcätum esse pätuns Nymphæ. Ovid. Näres önérárias, quärum minor nulla érat daum millium amphörum, i. e. quärum minor nulla érat quam nävis daum, etc. Cic.

(2.) When it is a general word denoting a person, an animal, etc.; as,

Thūcýdides, qui ejusilem atátis fuit, scil. hômo, Thucydides, who was of the lift property of the property of the property of the primum stipendium mérui amorum décem septemque, scil. ábaloris efficient, scil. ánimātin. Cass. (Claudius) somi brévissimi èrat. Suet. Mirā sum diacritāte. Cic. Vidyus ingénio mobili èrat. Sall. Non est jāris sui, He is not his own master. Lucau. Pôtestâtis suæ esse. Liv. Suarumque rérum érant. Id. Cf. Rem. 8, (7.)

(3.) When it is a general word denoting thing, for which, in English, the words part, property, duty, office, business, characteristic, etc., are commonly supplied; as,

Têmeritas est florentis atâtis, prădentia senectătis, Rashness is (the characteristic) of youth, prudence of old age. Cic. Est hoc Gallica consustialinis. Cass. So, stultitue est; est letitătis, etc., which are equivalent to stultitu est, letitas est. Omnia hostum crant. A paucis êmi, quod multorum esset. Sall.

- (a.) This happens especially when the subject of the verb is an infinitive, or an entire clause, in which case, instead of the genitive of the personal pronouns, mei, tui, etc., the neuters of the possessives, meum, tuum, etc., are used; as, Addlescentis est mājūres nāta rēvērēri, It is (the duty) of a youth to reverence the aged. Ovid. Cājusis hōmais est errāre, nullus nīsi instipientis in errōre persēvīrāre. Cic. Pauptris est nāmērāre pēcus. Ovid. So especially moris est; as, Nēgāri mōris esse Grecōrum, tin convīcio virōrum accumbirent mālieres, the same as mōrem esse Grecōrum. Cic. Nīhil tum apaunda libertātis esse. Liv. So when the verb is omitted; Tāmen officii duxit, exōrāre patrem, scil, esse. Suct. Non est mentiri meum. Ter. Tuum est, M. Cādo, vidēre quīd dagātur.
- (b.) Instead of the genitive of a substantive, also, the neuter of a possessive adjective derived from it is sometimes used; as, Humanum est errare, To err is human. Ter. Et faère et pair fortia Romanum est. Liv.
- (4.) The same construction sometimes occurs after f άcio, and some other verbs mentioned in § 230, εsse being understood; as, Asia Römāπōrum facta est, Asia became (a possession) of the Romans. Just. Agrum suæ ditiönis f ēcisse.
- (5.) The limited noun is sometimes wanting, when it is a general word, though not in the predicate after sum; as, Magni formica libboris, scil. ānimal, The ant (an animal) of great labor. Hor. So Li vēnit in mentem pētestātis tuæ, scil. mēnoria, or the like. Cic.

Note. When the noun which is wanting denotes a thing, grammarians sometimes supply migatium, off icium, mānus, ōpus, res, causa, etc. It is an instance of a construction common in Latin, to omit a noun when a general idea is intended. See § 205, Rem. 7, (2.)

REM. 9. The limiting noun also is sometimes omitted; as,

Tria millia, scil. passuum. In most cases of this kind, an adjective, adjective pronoun, or participle, is expressed in the genitive.

REM. 10. Two genitives sometimes limit the same noun, one of which is commonly subjective, and the other objective; as,

Agămemnonis belli glōria, Agamemnon's glory in war. Nep. Illius administrătio próvinciae, Cic. Eōrum dierum consuctădine titueris nostri exercttăs perspectă. Cass. Orbitus reipūblicae tālium virorum. Cic. Pro vētērībus Helvētiōrum injāriis popūli Romāni. Cass.

REM. 11. Opus and ūsus are rarely limited by a genitive or accusative, but generally by an ablative, of the thing needed; as,

Argenti opus fuit, There was need of money. Liv. Ad constitum pensandum temporis opus esse. Id. Procemii non sconper ūsus est. Quint. Si quo operas edrum ūsus est. Liv. Puēro opus est cibum. Plaut. Usus est hominem astatum. Id. See § 243.

REM. 12. The relation denoted by the genitive in Latin, is generally expressed, in English, by of, or by the possessive case. Cf. R. 2, (b.) The objective genitive may often be rendered by some other preposition; as.

Rêmêdium dölöris, A remedy for pain. Injūria patris, Injury to a father. Descensus Averni, The descent to Avernus. Ira belli, Anger on account of the war. Poteston set, Power in or over a thing.

Nors. Certain limitations of nouns are made by the accusative with a preposition, and by the ablative, either with or without a preposition. Cf. § 202, 6, I. and II.

### GENITIVE AFTER PARTITIVES.

§ 212. Nouns, adjectives, adjective pronouns, and adverbs, denoting a part, are followed by a genitive denoting the whole; as.

Pars cieitātis, A part of the state. Nulla sŏrōrum, No one of the sisters. Aliquis philosophōrum, Somen one of the philosophers. Quis mortālum ? Who of mortals? Mājor piecāmu, The edder of the vouths. Doctsatuus Rōmānōrum, The most learned of the Romans. Multum pēcāniæ, Much (of) money. Sātis ēloguentāæ, Enough of eloquence. Ubinam gentium sāmas? Where on earth are we?

Note. The genitive thus governed denotes either a number, of which the partitive designates a portionsignates one or more individuals; or a whole, of which the partitive designates a portionin the latter sense, the genitive of common and abstract nouns commonly follows either the neuter of adjectives and adjective pronouns, or adverbs; and that of material nouns depends on substantives signifying quantity, weight or measure; as, mēdimnum titici, a bushel of wheat; then farris; jūgčrum agri; magna vis auri.

REMARK 1. Nouns denoting a part are pars, nēmo, nǐhil, etc., and also nouns denoting measure, weight, etc.; as, mödius, mēdimnum, and libra; as,

 $N\/emo$  nostrum, No one of us.  $Maxima\ pars$  hŏminum.  $Nihil\ h\/um\/an\/arum$  rerum. Cic.  $Dimidium\ militum$ . Liv.  $M\/edimnum\ tritici$ . Cic.

- Brot. 2. Adjectives and adjective pronouns, denoting a part of a number, including partitives and words used partitively, comparatives, superlatives, and numerals, are followed by the genitive plural, or by the genitive singular of a collective noun.
- (1) Partitives (§104, 9); as, ullus, vallus, sölus, ülus, üter, ütergue, ütercungue, üterris, üterlibet, neuter, alter, alterüter, "ölegüs, quidam, quisnam, quisquis, quidam, quisnam, quisquisque, quisquisque, quisquam, qui unque, inusquisque, quis? qui? quol? quitus? quitusquisque? tôl, üliquol, nonualli, plérique, mudi, pruci, medus. Thus, Quisquis debrun, Whoever of the gods. Ovid. Considua ulter, One of the consuls. Liv. Multihominum, Many men. Plin. Et médius juéenum iba?; i.e. between. Ovid. For the gender of adjectives used partitively, see § 205. R. 12.

(2.) Words used partitively; as, Expédit militum, The light-armed (of the) soldiers. Liv. Délecti équitum. Id. Vétéres Rômānāvum dūcum. Vell. Sūpēri deõrum, The gods above. Hor. Sancte deõrum. Virg. Dēgēnēres cānum. Plin. Piskium femium. Id.

(3.) Comparatives and superlatives; as, Doctior jurenum. Oratorum præstantissimus. Eliquentissimus Romanorum. Optimus omnium.

(4.) Numerals, both cardinal and ordinal; also the distributive singuli; as, Edutum centum quinquaginia interfecti, A hundred and fifty of the horsemen were killed. Curt. Sopientum octavus. Hor. Singulos vestrum. Curt.

(5.) The meaning is often nearly the same, whether the partitive adjective agrees in case and number with a noun, or takes such noun after it in the genitive; as, Doctivsians Römänismen, or, doctissians Römänis: Alter considum, or alter consul. But the genitive cannot be used, when the adjective includes the same number of things as that of which the whole consists; as, Vēniāmus ad civos, qui duo săpersunt; not quōnum duo, since these are all, though we say in Euglish, 'of whom two survive.'

Note 1. (a.) The comparative with the genitive denotes one of two individuals or classes; the superlative denotes a part of a number greater than two; as, Mājor frātrum, The elder of two brothers. Maximus frātrum, The eldest of three or more.

(b.) In like manner, üter, alter, and neuter, generally refer to two; quiz, älius, and nullus, to a whole consisting of more than two; as, Uter nostrum? Which

of us (two?) Quis restrum? Which of you (three or more?)

Note 2. Nostrum and restrum are used as partitive genitives, in preference to nostri and restri, and are always joined with onnium even when the genitive is a subjective one; as, Patria, quae communis est omnium nostrum parens. Cle. But vestrum sometimes occurs in other connections also without a partitive meaning; as, Quis èrit tam capidus restrum. Cle.

Note 3. The partitive word is sometimes omitted; as, Fies nobtlium tu quo-

que fontium, scil. unus. Hor. Centies sestertium, scil. centena millia.

Note 4. The noun denoting the whole, after a partitive word, is often put in the ablative, with the prepositions de, e, ex, or in, or in the accusative, with  $\delta p \bar{u} d$  or  $int \bar{e}r$ ; as,  $N \bar{e} m$ 0 de iis. Alter ex censoribus. Liv. Unus ex multis. Cic. Accertinus ex sensitus. Id. Thates, qui sapientissimus in septem fuit. Id. Primus inter omnes. Virg. Crasus inter reges  $\delta p \bar{u} l$  entissimus. Sen. Apud Helvetios nobilissimus.

Note 5. The whole and its parts are frequently placed in apposition, distributively; as, Interfectores, pars in forum, pars Syrācāsas pergunt. Liv. See § 204, R. 10.

Note 6. Cuncti and omnes, like partitives, are sometimes followed by a gentitive plural; as, Attilus Macédonum fére onnibus persuasit. Attalus persuaded almost all the Macedonians. Liv. Cunctos hominum. Ovid. Cunctas provinciarum. Plin.

Note 7. In the following passage, the genitive singular seems to be used like that of a collective noun: Tōlius autem injustitive nulla câpitălior est, etc. Cic. Off. 1, 13. The phrase Rem nullo mãolo probabilem omnium (Cic. Nat. Deor. 1, 27,) seems to be used for Rem nullo omnium molorum probabilem.

Rem. 3. The genitive denoting a whole, may depend on a neuter adjective or adjective pronoun. With these the genitive singular is commonly used; as,

Plus clópnentie, More (of) eloquence. Tantum fidei, So much fidelity. Id tempóris, That time. Ad hoc ætátis. Sometimes the genitive plural; as, Id máseriárum. Ter. Armórum quantum. Ces.

Nore 1. (a.) Most neuter adjectives used partitively denote quantity; as, tantum, quentum, aliquantum, plasminus, minisam, minisam, minisam, minisam, paulum, plairimum, reliquam: with the compounds and diminutives, tantilum, tantundem, quantilum, quantilumcumque, etc.; to which add médium, summum, ultinum, dibud, etc. The pronouns thus used are hoc, id, illud, istud, idem, quod, and quid, with their compounds, öliquid, quipquid, quippium, quidquam, quodcumque.

(b.) Most of these adjectives and pronouns may either agree with their nouns, or take a genitive; but the latter is more common. Tantum, quantum, altiquantum, and plas, when they denote quantity, are used with a genitive only, as are also quid and its compounds, when they denote a part, sort, etc., and quod in the sense of quantum. Thus, Quantum crérit Nilus, tantum spei in annum est. Sen. Quid millieris uzorem habes? What kind of a woman... Ter.

Aliquid formæ. Cic. Quid hoc rei est? What does this mean? Ter. Quod auri, quod argenti, quod ornamentorum fuit, id Verres abstülit.

Note 2. Neuter adjectives and pronouns, when followed by a genitive, are to be accounted substantives, and in this construction are found only in the nominative and accusative.

Nore 3. Sometimes the genitive after these adjectives and pronouns is a neuter adjective, of the second declension, without a noun; as, Toutum bôni, So much good. Si quid hâbes novi, If you have any thing new. Cic. Quid rêliqui est Ter. Nihi is also used with such a genitive; as, Nihi sinceri, No sincerity. Cic. This construction occurs very rarely with neuter adjectives in ê of the third declension, and only in connection with neuters of the second declension; as, Si quidquan non dic o civilis sed hāmāni essel. Liv.

Note 4. In the poets and in the prose writers later than Cicero, neuter adjectives in the plural number are sometimes followed by a genitive, either singular or plural, with a partitive signification; as, Extrêma impérit, The frontiers of the empire. Tac. Pontes et viarum angusta, The bridges and the narrow parts of the roads. Id. Opéra licorum. Virg. Antiqua fecilerum. Liv. Canuta campõrum. Tac. Exercent colles, atque hõrum asperrima pascunt. Virg. Cf. § 205, R. 9.

REM. 4. The adverbs sat, satis, parum, nămis, abunde, largăter, affatim, and partim, used partitively, are often followed by a genitive; as,

Sut râtionis, Enough of reason. Virg. Sitis éléquentiæ, părum săpientiæ, Enough of eloquence, (vet) but little wisdom. Sull. Nimis instlâirum. Cic. Terroris et fraulis abunde est. Virg. Auri et argenti largiter. Plaut. Côpiărum affitim. Liv. Quam partim illorum mili fămiliărissimi essent. Cic.

Note 1. The above words, though generally adverbs, seem, in this use, rather to be nouns or adjectives.

Nort 2. (a.) The genitives gentium, terrārum, bici, and bicārum, with certain adverbs of place, strengthen their meaning: as, Usquam terrārum. Just. Usquam gentium, Any where whatever. Plaut. Ubi terrārum simus? Where in the world are we? Cic. Abire quo terrārum possent. Liv. Ubi sit bici. Plin. Eb bici, equivalent to eo bico, in that place. Tac. Edden bici res est. Cic. Nescire quo loci esset. Id. But the last three examples might perhaps more properly be referred to Rem. 3.

(b.) The adverts of place thus used are abi, ishiama, shicumque, abiibh, ishiris, ubique, unde, usquam, nusquam, quo, quocumque, quòris, quòquo, diquo, hic, hūe, eo, còdem. Lôc also occurs atter ibi and thidem; gentium after longe; as, Ibi loci, in that place. Plin. Abes longe gentium. Cic. So, minime gentium, By no means. Fer Viciniae in the genitive is used by the comic writers after hic and huc; as, Hie proximae viciniae. Plant. Huc viciniae. Ter. Cf. § 221, R. 3, (4.)

Note 3. Huc, co, quo, when used figuratively to express a degree, are joined also with other gentitives; as, Eo insolentiae fibricisque processid, He advanced to such a degree of insolence and madness. Plin. Huc enim mālorum ventum est. Curt. Huctine rerum vēntumas? Have we come to this? Pers. Eo mīšeriās rum vēntur, To such a pitch of mīšery. Sail. Quo āmentise progressi sids. Liv.

Note 4. The genitives loci, biorum, and tempôris, appear to be redundant after the adverbs adhue, inde, intéren, posten, tum, and tune, in expressions de-noting time; as, Adhue biorum, Till now. Plant. Inde loci, After that. Lucr. Intérea loci, In the mean time. Ter. Posten loci, Afterwards. Sall. Tum tempôris, and time tempôris, and time tempôris, and time tempôris, and time tempôris, and time. Sall. Cf. R. 3.

Note 5. When the genitive *ijus* occurs after quond, in such connections as the following: Quond *ijus* factere poteris. Cic.; or passively, Quond *ijus* factere poteris. As far as may be. Cic.; the *ijus* refers to the preceding clause; literally, as much of it as possible.

NOTE 6. Pridle and postrudie, though reckoned adverbs, are followed by a genitive, depending on the noun dies contained in them; as, Pridle ijus diei, lit. On the day before that day, i. e. The day before. Cic. Pridle isolidizum, The day before the ambush. Tac. Postrudie ijus diei, The next day. Cæs. When they are followed by an accusative, ante or post is understood. Cf. § 238, 1, (b.)

NOTE 7. Adverbs in the superlative degree, like their adjectives, are followed by a genitive; as, Optime omnium, Best of all. Cic.

## GENITIVE AFTER ADJECTIVES.

§ 213 A noun, limiting the meaning of an adjective, is put in the objective genitive, to denote the relation expressed in English by of, in, or in respect to; as,

Aridus laudis, Desirous of praise. Plina timoris, Full of fear.
Appètens glorie, Eager for plory.
Mémor virtuits, Mindful of virtue.
Dectas faudt, Skilful in speaking.

So, Nescia mens făti, The mind ignorant in regard to fate. Virg. Impôtens Ire, lit. Powerless în respect to anger, i.e. unable to control it. Liv. Homines expertes verifatis, Men destitute of truth. Cic. Lactis abundons, Abounding in milk. Virg. Terra fêrax arborum, Land productive of trees. Plin. Tênax proposti vir, A man tenacious of his purpose. For. Æger mind, Sick inmind. Liv. Lõcus midilus jürcili summique liverti, i. e. between. Ovid. Mõrum diversus. Tac. Opērum sõlatus. Hor. Liber läbörum. Id. Integer vitte scellerisque pärus, Upright in life, and free from wickedness. Hor. Vini pollens Liber. Plaut.

From the above examples, it will be seen that the genitive after an adjective is sometimes translated by other words besides  $\sigma_i$ , in, or in respect to, though the relation which it denotes remains the same. Cf. 211, R. 12.

Remark 1. The following classes of adjectives, which, as denoting a relation to a thing, are called relative adjectives (§ 104, 13), are frequently limited by a genitive; viz. (1.) Verbals in ax; as, capax, čdax, ferax, fugax, pervicax, tenax, etc.-(2.) Participials in us, and a few in tus, with their compounds; as, amans, appètens, tapiens, efficiens, patiens, impatiens, sitiens,—consultus, doctus, solutus.—(3.) Adjectives denoting desire or aversion; as, ārārus, arīdus, cupīdus, stūdiosus; fastīdiosus:—participation; as, particeps, affinis, consors, exsors, expers, inops: -knowledge, experience, capacity, and their contraries; as, callidus, compos, conscius, gnārus, iguārus, pērītus, imperitus, impos, potens, impotens, pradens, impradens, expertus, inexpertus, conscius, inscius, nescius, insolens, insolitus, insuctus, rudis, sollers:-me mor y and for getfulness; as, memor, immemor, etc .: - certainty and doubt; as, certus, incertus, ambiguus, dubius, suspensus:-care and negligence; as, anxius, sollicitus, providus, improvidus, securus:-fear and confidence; as, păridus, timidus, trepidus, imparidus, fudens, interritus:-guilt and innocence; as, noxius, reus, suspectus, compertus, minifestus, unnoxius, innocens, insons :- plenty and want; as, abundans, plinus, dives, satus, largus, inops, egēnus, inānis, pauper, parcus, solūtus, rācuus.

(a.) In the poets and later proce writers, many other adjectives, particularly those which express mental emotions, are in like manner limited by a genitive, especially by airmi, ingenii, mentis, irve, militue, belli, litböris, rērum, writ, f ūtūri,

morum, and fidei.

REM. 2. The limiting genitive, by a Greek construction, sometimes denotes a cause or source, especially in the poets; as, Lassus māris, et viārum, militizaque. Hor. Fessus rine. Stat. Fessus māris. Hor. Autonitus serpentis. Sil. Mens interritu lēti. Ovid.

REM. 2. Participles in ns. when used as such, take after them the same case as the verbs from which they are derived; as, Se amans, Loving himself. Cic. Mare terram appètens. Id.

REM. 4. Instead of the genitive, denoting of, in, or in respect to, a different construction is sometimes used after many of these adjectives; as,

(1.) An infinitive or a subjunctive clause; as, Certus ire, Determined to go. Ovid. Canture périti. Virg. Félicior unguere téla. Id. Anxivs quid facto opus sit. Sall. Vice mêmor quan sis acci brevis. Hor.—So dicinus, ciridus, callidus, cipidus, firmus, fréquens, grairus, impôtens, inops, lucus, lurqus, liber,

pollens, memor, dubius, etc.

(2.) An accusative with a preposition; as, Ad rem avidior. Ter. Avidus in direptiones. Liv. Animus capax ad præcepta. Ovid. Ad casum fortunamque felix. Cic. Ad fraudem callidus. Id. Diligens ad custodiendum. Id. Negligentior in patrem. Just. Vir ad disciplinam peritus. Cic. Ad bella rudis. Liv. Potens in res bellicas. Id. Alucer ad maleficia. Cic. Inter bellum et pacem nīhil mēdium est. Id.—So with ad, fērtīlis, firmus, infirmus, potens, stērīlis, etc. with in, cupidus, parcus, potens, prodigus, etc.

(3.) An accusative without a preposition, chiefly in the poets; as, Nadus membra, Bare as to his limbs. Virg. Os, humerosque deo similis Id. Cetera fulvus. Hor. Cuncta pollens. Sen. Ag. See § 234, II.

(4.) An ablative with a preposition; as, Avidus in pecuniis, Eager in re-(1) Au nobauve with a preposition; as, zeraus in pecunius, lager in regard to money. Cie. Ancias de fămă. Quint. Rūdis in jūre cieili. Cie. Péritus de agricultūră Varr. Prūdens in jūre cieili. Cie. Reus de vi. Id. Pūrus ab cultu hūmāno. Liv. Certior factus de re. Cie. Sollicitus de re. Id. Sūper sečlēre suspectus. Sall. hops ab āmicis. Cie. Pauper in ære. Hor. Modicus in cultu. Plin. Ab āquis stérilis. Apul. Copiisus a frūmento. Cie. Ab ēquitātu. firmus. Id. So with in immodicus, parcus, über:—with ab, ălienus, bealus, extorris, immūnis, inops, liber, nūdus, orbus, vācuus.

(5.) An ablative without a preposition; as, Arte rădis, Rude in art. Ovid. Requi crimine insons. Liv. Compos mente. Virg. Prūdens consilio. Just. Æger pēdībus. Sall. Præstans ingenio. Cic. Modicus severitate. Tac. Nihil insidiis vacuum. Cic. Amor et melle et felle est fecundissimus. Plaut. Medius Pol-

luce et Castore. Ovid. Cf. Rem. 5.

In many instances, the signification of the accusative and ablative after adjectives differs, in a greater or less degree, from that of the genitive.

Rem. 5. As many of the adjectives, which are followed by a genitive, admit of other constructions, the most common use of each, with particular nouns, can, in general, be determined only by recourse to the dictionary, or to the classics. Some have,

 The genitive only; as, běnignus, căpax, exsors, impos, impôtens, insătiābilis, irritus, liberālis, modicus, mūnificus, prælargus, and many others.

(2.) The genitive more frequently; as, compos, consors, egenus, exheres, expers, fertilis, indigus, inops, parcus, particeps, pauper, prodigus, prosper, sterilis.

(3.) The genitive or ablative indifferently; as, dires, fecundus, ferax, immānis, inānis, inamodicus, jējānus, largus, nimius, opūlentus, pērītus, plēnus, po-tens, pūrus, refertus, satur, āber, vacuus.

 The ablative more frequently; as, ăbundans, ălienus, cassus, copiosus, extorris, firmus, fētus, frequens, gravidus, gravis, infirmus, līber, locuples, lætus, mactus, nudus, onustus, orbus, pollens, sătiatus, truncus, vălidus, viduus.

(5.) The ablative only; as, beātus, crēber, densus, mutilus, tumidus, turgidus.

For the ablative after many of the preceding adjectives, see § 250.

Rem. 6. Some adjectives usually limited by a dative, sometimes take a genitive instead of the dative; as, similis, dissimilis, etc. See § 222, R. 2.

REM. 7. Many adjectives in addition to the genitive or ablative denoting of or in respect to, take also another case to express a different relation; as, Mens sibi conscia recti. Cf. § 222, R. 3. Conscius has also sometimes the dative instead of the genitive of the thing; as, conscius huic facinori. Cic.

### GENITIVE AFTER VERBS

§ 214. Sum, and verbs of valuing, are followed by a genitive, denoting degree of estimation; as,

A me argentum, quanti est, sămito, Take of me so much mouey as (he) is worth. Ter. Magni estimătat péciniam, He valued money greatly. Cic. Ager munc plūris est, quam tunc fuit. Id. Tanti est, It is worth so much; and, absolutely, It is worth while. Cic. Hājus mon fācio, I don't care ikat for it.

REMARK 1. (a.) Verbs of valuing are joined with the genitive, when the value is expressed in a general or indefinite manner by:—

- (1) A neuter adjective of quantity; as, tanti, quanti, plaris, minoris, magni, permagni, plarini, mazzini, minini, perci, tantiden, quanticunque, quantitis, quantitibet, but only very rarely multi and mijoris.
  - (2.) The nouns assis, flocci, nauci, nikili, pili, teruncii, and also pensi and
- 3.) But if the price or value of a thing is a definite sum, or is expressed by a substantive, other than assis, flocci, etc., it is put in the ablative. Cf. § 252.

REM. 2. The verbs of valuing are estimo, existimo, duco, facto, fito, haboo, pendo, pato, depato, taxo. Tims, Ul quanti quieque se ipse faciat, tanti fint ab amicis, That as much as each one values himself, so much he should be valued by his friends. Cic. Sed quie parvi id ducret. Id. Hondres si magni non patemus. Id. Non assis facis? Catall. Neque quod dix, if focci existimat. Plant.

Nore 1. (a.) The phrase equi bôni, or equi bônique fácio, or consido, I take a thing in good part, am satisfied with it, may be classed with genitives of value; as, Nos sequi bônique fácions. Liv. So, Bôni considui Plin.—(b.) A genitive of price is joined also to come, kibito, dôreo, etc.; as, quanti hábitas? what rent do you pay for your house or lodging? quanti dôcet? what are his terms in teaching?

Note 2. After æstimo, the ablatives magno, permagno, parco, nihilo, are sometimes used instead of the genitive; as, Dita magno æstimas, accepta parvo. Sen. Pro milio, also, occurs after düco, kāben, and pāto; and nikil with æstimo and moror. Ci. § 231, R. 5.

Nore 3. The neuter adjectives above enumerated, and hājus, may be referred to a norm understood, as prédix, aris, pondicis, mômenti; and may be considered as limiting a preceding noun, also understood, and denoting some person or thing; as, Estimo te mayari, i. e. kôminem magni prétii. Scio ĉjus ordinis auctór:titlem s-mper ripud te mayari fuisse, i. e. rem magni mômenti. The words assis, etc., may also be considered as depending on an omitted noun; as, prêtio, rem, etc.

REM. 3. Statements of price, also, when general or indefinite, are put in the genitive after verbs of buying, selling, letting, and hiring; as,

Mercātēres non tantīdem vendunt, quanti émērunt. Cic. Nulla pestis hūmūno gēnēri plūris stētit, quam īra. Sen.

Note 1. Verbs of buying, selling, etc., are emo, rendo, the neutral passive, reneo, consto, prosto, and liceo, to be exposed for sale.

Nore 2. With verbs of bnying, selling, etc., the ablatives magno, permagno, plainton, parro, minimo, and nihile are often used instead of the genitive; as, Non pôlest parro res magna constâre. Sen. Quanti êmère possum minimo? What is the lowest price I can buy at? Plant. Sometimes also the adverbs câre, bêne, and male take the place of the genitive or ablative of price.

§ 215. (1.) Misčreor, misčresco, and the impersonals misčret, panitet, padet, tædet, and piget, are followed by a genitive of the object in respect to which the feeling is exercised; as,

Mistrimini screirum, Pity the allies, Cio. Mistrescete regis, Pity the king. Wen mistre, tui me mistret, mei piget, I pity you, and am dissatisfied with myself. Acc. Eos ineptifirum penitet. Cic. Frairis me pidet pigetque. Ter. Me criticitis morum piget tedetque. Sall. So the compound distatedet; Haud quad tui me, nêque doin distatedet. Plaut; and the passive; Numquam suscept negotii cum pertessum est. Nep. Lentitudinis corum pertessa. Tac. Mistrium est me tudrum fortunarum. Ter. Câre fe frairum mistrectur. Cic. Pidet (me) deorum hömtnumque, I am filled with shame in reference both to gods and men. Liv.

Nors 1. Misérescit is sometimes used in the same manner as miséret; as, Nunc te misérescat mei. Ter. Miséree, as a personal verb, also, occurs with a genitive; as, pise sui miséret. Lucr.

REMARK. The genitive after the above impersonals seems to depend on some general word constituting the grammatical subject of such verbs, and signifying, matter, business, fut, case, circumstances, conduct, character, etc., cf § 211, R. 8, (3); and § 209, R. 3, (4.) Instead of the genitive with its omitted noun, an infinitive or clause with quod or with an interrogative particle is sometimes used as a subject; as, Non me hoc jan dicere pidebit. Cic. Non positet me quantum profecerim, I am not dissatisfied with my progress. Id. These verbs linve also sometimes a nominative; as, Me quiden hec conditio non puentet. Plaut. Non he hace pidebit Ter.

Note 2. Miséret occurs with an accusative of the object, instead of a genitive; as, Mênêdêmi vicem miséret me. Ter. So, also, Pertusus ignāvium suam. Suet.

Nore 3. (a.) These impersonals, as active verbs, take also an accusative of the person exercising the feeling which they express. See § 229, R. 6.— (b.) And sometimes also the accusative of the neuter pronouns and of nihit, denoting to solat degree the feelings are exercised; as, Sequitar ut nihit (stiplentem) prairie.d. Cic. Cf. § 283, (3.)

(2.) Sătăgo is sometimes followed by a genitive denoting in what respect; as,

Is sătăgit rerum suărum. He is busily occupied with his own affairs. Ter. This compound is often written separately, and in either case the genitive seems to depend upon sat. See § 212, R. 4. Agito, with săt, in like manner, is followed by a genitive; as, Nunc âgitos sat tâte tuârum rerum. Plaut.

\$216. Recordor, memini, reminiscor, and obliviscor, are followed by a genitive or accusative of the object remembered or forgotten; as,

Flägitiörum suörum rēcordibitur. Cic. Omnes grādus atātis rēcordor tuc, I call to mind all the periods of your life. Id. Mēmbu vivõrum, I am mindful of the living. Id. Nümeros mēmbu, I remember the measure. Virg. Rēminisci zētēris fāma. Nep. Dulces māriems rēminiscitur Argos, Virg. Rēminisci āmīcos. Ovid. Oblitus sui. Virg. Injūriārum obliviscitur. Nep. Obliviscor injūrias. Cic. Obliviscor Graios. Virg.

REMARK 1. (a.) When the thing remembered or forgotten is expressed by a neuter pronoun or adjective, it is always put in the accusative. An accusative of the person with these verbs is unusual, except that minini, when referring to a contemporary, always takes an accusative of the person; as, Cinnam minini. Cic.

(b.) An infinitive or a dependent clause sometimes follows these verbs; as, Mêmento mihi suppētias ferre. Plant. Esse quoque in fatis reminiscitur, affore tempus, quo mare, etc. Ovid. Obliti quid deceat. Hor. Memini te scribere. Cic. Quæ sum passūra recordor. Ovid.

Rem. 2. Récordor and měmini, to remember, are sometimes followed by an ablative with de; as, Petimus ut de suis liberis récordentur. Cic. De palla me-

mento. Plaut.

Rem. 3. Měmini, signifying to make mention of, has a genitive, or an ablative with de; as, Něque lūjus rei měminit počtu. Quint. Měministi de exsůlibus. Cic. With wind mili in menten, the person or thing may be made the subject of renit; as, Misera ubi venit in mentem mortis metus. Plaut. Venit hoc mili in mentem; or an infinitive or subjunctive clause may supply the place of the subject:—for the genitive with this plurase, as in Solet miki in mentem ventre illius temperis, see § 211, R. 8, (5.) The genitive with recorder is very

§ 217. Verbs of accusing, convicting, condemning, and acquitting, with the accusative of the person, are followed by a genitive denoting the crime; as,

Arquit me furti, He charges me with theft. Alterum accusat probri, He accuses another of villany. Meipsum mertiæ condemno. Cic.

## Remark 1. (a.) To this rule belong the verbs of

A c c u s i n g : accūso, aqo, arcesso, arquo, cito, defero, increpo, incuso, insimulo, postulo, and more rarely alligo, anguiro, astringo, capto, increpito, urgeo, interrogo, reum ago or facio, alicui diem dico, cum aliquo ago. - Convicting; convinco, coarquo, prehendo, teneor, obstringor, obligor. - Condemning; damno, condemno, infamo, and more rarely judico, noto, plector.—Acquitting; absolvo, libero, purgo, and rarely solvo. To the verbs of accusing, etc., may be added the adjectives denoting guilt and innocence, which likewise take a genitive. Cf. § 213, R. 1, (3.)

(b.) The genitives which follow these verbs are, audāciae, ararītiae, cadis, falsi, furti, ignāviæ, impiétātis, injūviāvum, lēvītātis, mājestātis, mālēfīcii, mendāčii, parrīcīdii, peccāti, pēcālātās, probri, proditionis, rei capitālis, repētundārum, scēlēris, stultītāc, temērītātis, timēris, tāmītātis, renēfīcii, etc.

Rem. 2. (a.) Instead of the genitive, an ablative with de is often used after accăso, diféro, anquiro, arquo, postălo, damno, condemno, absolvo, and purgo; as, Accăsăre de negligentiă. Cic. De vi condemnăti sunt. Id. De repetundis est postulātus. Id. Sometimes with in, after accuso, coarguo, convinco, teneor, and deprehendor; as, In quo te accuso (Cic.); and after libero, with a or ab; as, A scelire liberati sumus. Cie. Accuso and damno with inter occur in the phrases inter sicarios accusare, etc., to charge with assassination.

- (b.) With some of the above verbs, an ablative without a preposition is often used; as, Libéráre culpā. Cic. Crimen quo argui posset. Nep. Prôconsillem postaliarerat repetundis. The. This happens especially with general words denoting crime; as, scelus, maléficium, peccétam, etc.; as, Me peccito solvo. Liv. The ablatives crimine and nomine, without a preposition, are often inserted before the genitive; as, Arcessère aliquem crimine ambitus. Liv. Nomine sceleris conjurătionisque damnăti. Cic.; and when not so inserted they are to be understood.
- (c.) Sometimes a clause takes the place of the genitive; as, Eum accūsābant and societatem feeisset. Nep. So the infinitive with the accusative. Quid? quod me—arguit serum accessisse? Ovid.

REM. 3. (a.) The punishment is commonly expressed by the genitive; as, căpitis, mortis, multa, pecănia, quadrupli, octupli; but sometimes by the ablative; as, capite, morte, multa, pêcania: and always by this case when a definite sum is mentioned; as, quindecim millibus æris: or the accusative with ad or in; as, ad prenam, ad bestias, ad m'italla, in mètallum, in expensas;—sometimes, though rarely, in the poets, by the dative; as, Dunmidus morti. Lucr.—(b.) Văti orvidirum, and less frequently vôto or vôtis dumarări, signifies 'to be condenned to fulfil one's vow;' and is consequently entivalent to 'to obtain what one wishes.' So also in the active voice, Danmabis tu quoque vôtis. Virg. Perdo is used by Plautus as a verb of accusing, with copritis; Quem ègo capitis perdam, will charge with a capital offence. So capite or capitis periolitari, Plautu, signifies 'to be in peril of one's lite.' With plecto and plector, coput is used in the ablative only.—(c.) Danmi infect is put in the genitive (depending upon nomine understood) after satisdo, prômito, stipulāri, répromitto, and careo; as, Si quis in pāriète demolicado danmi infect promisèrit. Cic.

Rem. 4. Acciso, inciso, and instmilo, instead of the genitive, sometimes take the accusative, especially of a neuter pronoun; as, Sid me non accisos. Plant. Our me uncissiciras. Ter. Sic me instmilior falsum facinus. Plant. See 4 231.

Rem. 5.

REM. 5. (a.) The following verbs of accusing, etc., are not followed by a genitive of the crime, but, as active verbs, by an accusative:—cdvamior, carpo, corripio, criminor, culpo, exciso, multo, panio, répréhendo, sigillo, taxo, trádico, titápero; as, Culpáre trifécunditátem agrórum. Colum. Excüsare errorem et ádolescentiam. Liv.

(b.) This construction also sometimes occurs with accūso, incūso, arguo, and tharguo; as, Fins ărăritium perf tilamque accūsārat. Nep. Culpam arguo. Liv. With multo, the punishment is put in the ablative only, without a preposition; as, Exsilis, morte multanter. Cic.

\$218. Verbs of admonishing, with the accusative of the person, are followed by a genitive of the person or thing respecting which the admonition is given; as,

Milites temporis monet, He admonishes the soldiers of the occasion. Tac. Admonébut álium egestátis, álium capidítátis sue. Sall.

Note. The verbs of admonishing are moneo, admoneo, commoneo, and commone facio.

REMAIK I. Instead of the genitive, verbs of admonishing sometimes have an ablative with de; as, De and Edilaris me admines. Cic.—sometimes an accusative of a pronoun or adjective in the neuter gender; as, Eos hoc môneo Cic. Hind me admonem. Id.; and in the passive, Multa admonem. Id.—rarely also a noun in, the accusative; as, Ean rem nos blocks admonial. Sail.

Rem. 2. Instead of the genitive, verbs of admonishing are also often followed by an infinitive or clause; as, Sovor alma monet succedere Lauso Turnum, His sister admonishes Turnus to take the place of Lausus. Virg. Mônet, ut suspiciones vitet. Cass. Sed cos hoc môneo, desinant furère. Cic. Mônet rationem tranent iesse habendam. Hirt. Immortalia ne spères mônet annus. Hor. Discipilos id unum môneo, ut, etc. Quint. Môneo quid facto opus sit. Ter. See § 273, 2.

\$ 219. Refert and interest are followed by a genitive of the person or thing whose concern or interest they denote; as,

Hamânitălis refert, It concerns human nature. Plin. Refert omnium ânt-madeert în mâlos. Tac. Intérest omnium recte fâcêre, It concerns all to do right. Cie.

REMARN 1. Instead of the genitive of the substantive pronouns, the adjective pronouns mea, tua, sua, nostra, and vestra, are used; as,

Men nihil refert, It does not concern me. Ter. Illud men magni intèrest, That greatly concerns me. Cic. Tun et men maxime intèrest, te valère. Cic. Mégis respibilice intèrest quam men. Id. Magni intèrest Cicèronis, vel men pitus, vel mehercale utriusque, me intervénire dicenti. Id.

Note. Rifert rarely occurs with the genitive, but often with the pronouns mea, tua, etc., and most frequently without either such pronoun or a genitive; as, quid refert? magnior magnoper rifert.

REM. 2. In regard to the case of these adjective pronouns, grammarisms differ. Some suppose that they are in the accusative plant neuter, agreeing with commoda or the like understood; as, Intérest mea, i. e. est inter mea, it is among my concerns. Riferst tua, i. e. r. f/ert se ud tua, it refers itself to your concerns. Others think that they are in the ablaive singular feminine, agreeing with re, causia, etc., understood, or in the dative. The better opinion seems to be, that they are in the accusative feminine for meam, luam, saam, etc., that rifert was originally rem fert, and that hence the ε of rifert is long.

REM. 3. Instead of the genitive, an accusative with ad is sometimes used; as, Ad hönörem meum interest quam primum urben me vénire. Cie. Quid id ad me aut ad mean rein réfert. Plant.—sometimes, though rarely, an accusative without a preposition; as, Quid te 19thur rétabil? Plant—or a dative; as, Die quid référait intra nâtire y fines viventi. Hor.

REM. 4. The subject of these verbs, or the thing which is of interest or importance, is sometimes expressed by a neuter pronoun; as, Id mea minime vifert. Ter. How vihimenter interest reipiblicae. Cic.; and sometimes by an infinitive with its accusative, or ut, or an interrogative particle with a subjunctive clause; as, multum mea intérest te esse diligentem, or ut diligens sis, or utrum diligens sis nec ne. When the infinitive alone is used with rifert or interest, the preceding subject is understood; as, omnium interest recte fáceire, scil. se.

REM. 5. The degree of interest or importance is expressed by adverbs or by neuter adjectives, etc., in the accusative or genitive: as, magis, magnopère, vèhèmenter, pàrum, minime, etc.; multum, plas, plarimum, mini, alquad, etc.; tanti, quanti, magni, permagni, plaris. But minimo discrimine réfert is found in Juv. 5, 123.

§ 220. Many verbs which are usually otherwise construed, are sometimes followed by a genitive. This rule includes

1. Certain verbs denoting an affection of the mind; ango, discriscior, exercio, fullo, pendeo, which are followed by ānim; detpior, despio, fullor, fastidio, incideo, miror, vercor: as, Absurde facis, qui angus te inimi. Plaut. -Me animi fullit. Lucr. Despitur laborum. Hor. Despitebum mentis. Plaut. Justiticane prius mirer belline laborum. Virg.

 The following, in imitation of the Greek idiom; abstineo, distao, purgo. Hor.; dissolo. Virg.; laudo, prohibeo. Sil.; lico, purticipo. Phati, libero. Liv.; dissolvo. Tibull.: compare liber kiborum; operum racuus; parus scileris. § 213.

3. Some verbs denoting to fill, to abound, to wont or need, to free, which are commonly followed by an ablative. Such are abundo, careo, compleo, expleo, impleo, èque, indigeo, sittiro, obsattiro, scatteo; as, Miclescenten saw temeritätis implet, He fills the youth with his own rushness. Liv. Animum explesse flumma. Virg. Egeo consilii. Cie. Non tam artis indigent quam laboris. Id. See §§ 249 and 250, (2.)

4. Pōtior, which also is usually followed by an ablative; as. Urbis pōtiri. To make oneself master of the city. Salt. Pōtiri regni (Cic.), kostium (Sall.), revium, To make oneself master of the world. Cic. Pōtio (active) occurs in Plautus; as, Eum nanc pōtivi servituiis, He has made him purtaker of slavery. In the same writer, pōtiva est hostium signifies, the fell into the hands of the enemy.' So, also, Aliquem compōtire practae or vott. App. So, Rēvum ādeptus est, Tac. Domniationis āpisci. Id. Regnāvii pōpilorum. Hor.

#### GENITIVE OF PLACE.

\$ 221. 1. The name of a town in which any thing is said to be, or to be done, if of the first or second declension and singular number, is put in the genitive; as,

Häbitat Milēti, He lives at Miletus. Ter. Quid Röme făciam? What can I do at Rome? Juv. Hercüles Tyri maxime colitur. Cic.

Note. For the construction of nome of the third declension or plural number, see § 254. The following appears to be the best explanation that has been given of this diversity of construction, depending solely on the number or declension of the noun. The name of the town 'where' or 'in which' is probably neither in the genitive nor the abhative, but always, as in Greek, in the dative. Since the genitive and dative are alike in the singular of the first declension and the dative and ablative plural are the same in all declensions, such examples as Röme and Albienis present no difficulty. In the third declension that dative and ablative singular were anciently alike, and in such ablatives as Anchri, Carthāgini, Lacademoni, the old form remains, see § 82, Ex. 5, (c.) In the second declension there was an old dative in oi, as in Greek, which was commonly changed to o, but sometimes to i: and the latter is still found in nulli, uni, etc., see § 167, and in the addiective pronouns; as ille, etc.

REMARK 1. Names of islands and countries are sometimes put in the genitive, like names of towns; as, Illiace vivive, To live in Ithaca. Cic. Coveyna funns. Id. Comon plavinum Cypri vizit, Timotheus Leshi, Nep. Quam Milliades domum Chersonesi habuti. Id. Crite jussit considere Apollo. Virg. Roma Namidicapue faciora jus membrat. Sall.

REM. 2. (a.) Instead of the genitive, the ablative of names of towns of the first and second declension and singular number, is sometimes, though rarely, used, as, Rex Tyro decidit, The king dies at Tyre. Just. Et Corintho et Alhénis et Likébiemöne naucitita est victoria. Id. Pons quem ille Abydo fécérat. Id. Hons quem ille Abydo fécérat. Id. Hons quem ille Abydo fécérat. Id. Hons expendar Roma nulum hobenas. Vitruv. Non Libyes, non ante Tyro. Virg. For the explanation of this apparent anomaly, see the preceding notes; in accordance with which it may be remarked, that the adverbs of place, ibi, ibi, tiblem, dibi, die ibi, ibic, ibite, istic, etc., appear from their form to be ancient datives.—(b.) When the noun is qualified by an adjective, it is put, not in the genitive, but in the ablative with in; as, in ipsā Alexandriā. Cie. And poeti-cally without in, déma Longā nostrum domindibur Abba. Virg.—(c.) When urbs, oppidam, bleus, etc., follow the genitive of place as appositions, they are put in the ablative either with, or, more rarely, without, in; as, Archias Antio-chiae natus est, celebri quondam urbe. Cie. Ciers Românos Neāpoli, in celeberrimo oppido sepe vidinus. Id. But when in urbe, etc., precede the name of a town, the latter also is put in the ablative; as, In oppido Citio. Nep; and but very rarely in the genitive; as, Cassius in oppido Antiochiae est,—in the town of Antioch. Cie., where the genitive depends on oppido

REM. 3. The genitives dŏmi, mīlĭtiæ, belli, and hŭmi, are construed like names of towns; as,

Tenuit se doni, He staid at home. Gic. Vir doni clarus. Liv. Spargit humi jussos dentes,—on the ground. Ovid. Militiæ and belli are thus used, especially when opposed to doni; as, Una semper militiæ et domi futumus,—both at home and in the earnp. Ter. So Doni militiæque. Cic. Et doni et militiæ. Id. Militiædonique. Liv. Militiæ et domi. Ter. Belli donique, in war and in peace. Hor.

(1.) Dômi is thus used with the possessives mew, tuw, suor, nostrw, restrw, and dilene; as, Dômi nostrw rizit, the lived at my house. Cic. Apad eum sic fut tampuam mew dômi. Id. Sacrificium, quod alliene dômi fièret invisére. Id. But with other adjectives, an ablative, generally with a preposition, is used; as, netdud dômo. Ovid. Pâternā dômo. di. Sometimes also with the possessives; as, Med in dômo. Hor. In dômo suā. Nep. So, instead of hūmi, 'upon the ground,'

hămo is sometimes used, with or without a preposition; as, In hămo ărênosā. Oyid. Sădēre hāmo nūdā. Id.

(2.) When a genitive denoting the possessor follows, either domi or in domo is used; as, Deprehensus domi Casaris. Cic. Domi illius fuisti. Id. In domo Casaris, Id. In domo cjus. Nep.

(3.) The ablative domo for domi also occurs, but not in Cicero; an, Ego id nunc expérior domo. Plant. Domo se ténére. Nep. Domo abditus. Suct. Bello for belli is found in Livy—Domi bello pue. So, also, himo for himi. Strâtus himo. Stat. Figit himo plantas. Virg.: and in humo lamen figit. Ovid.

(4.) Terræ is sometimes used like hůmi; as, Sacra terræ cělávimus. Liv. Prôjectus terræ. Virg. Ignes terræ couldi. Luc. So, also, árèmæ; Truncum réliquit árèmæ. Virg.: and cichué; Proxime vichnie hábitat. Plaut.

(5.) The genitive of names of towns, dömi, militia, etc., is supposed by some to depend on a noun understood; as, urbe, oppido, adbus, sölo, loco, tempore, etc., but see a different explanation above in Note.

## GENITIVE AFTER PARTICLES.

II. Certain adverbs are followed by the genitive. See § 212, R. 4.

III. The genitive plural sometimes depends on the preposition tenus; as,

Cũmārum tēnus, As far as Cumæ. Cœl. Crūrum tēnus. Virg. Lātērum tēnus. Id. Urbūm Corējræ tēnus. Liv.—For the ablative after tēnus, and for the place of the preposition, see § 241, and R. 1.

### DATIVE.

§ 222. 1. The dative is the case of reference, as it denotes the object with reference to which the subject acts, or in reference to which it possesses any specified quality; or, in other words, the object for which, to the benefit or loss of which, any thing is or is done. Hence, in distinction from the dative of the end (§ 227) the dative of reference is called dutirus commŏdi et incommŏdi, the dative of advantage and disadvantage; as,

Scrībo vōbis kunc librum, I write this book for you. Prēsum tibi, or Tībi ūtilis sum, I am useful to you.

2. Hence the dative of advantage and disadvantage may be used (a) with adjectives and particles whose meaning is incomplete unless the object is mentioned in reference to which the quality exists. (b) With verbs both transitive and intransitive. If transitive they take an accusative of the nearer and a dative of the remoter object, if intransitive they take a dative only. (c) With certain verbs compounded with prepositions, after which the dative is used instead of the case which the preposition, if separate, would govern. (d) After a few verbal substantives derived from verbs which govern a dative.

# DATIVE AFTER ADJECTIVES.

3. A noun limiting the meaning of an adjective, is put in the dative, to denote the *object* to which the quality is directed; as,

Utilis agris, Useful to the fields Juv. Jūcundus āmicis, Agreeable to his friendes. Mart. Inimicus quicit, Unifriendly to rest. Id. Charta inuitilis scribendo, Paper not useful for writing. Plin.

Note. The dative is commonly translated by the prepositions to or for; but sometimes by other prepositions, or without a preposition.

REMARK 1. Adjectives signifying useful, pleasant, friendly, fit, tite, inclined, ready, easy, clear, equal, and their opposites, also those signifying near, many compounded with con, and verbals in bilis, are followed by the dative; as,

Félix tuis, Propitions to your friends. Virg. Orâtio ingrâta Gallis, A speech displeusing to the Gauls. Česes. Amicus tyranmid, Friendly to tyranny. Nep. Labori inhabitis, Unsuited to labor. Colum. Patri similis, Like his father. Cic. Nithi tam est Lysice diversum, quam Isocrâtes. Aptum tempôri. Id. Malo promus. Sen. Promptus séditioni. Tac. Cuivis fâcile est. Ter. Mili certum est. Cic. Par frâtri too. Id. Falsa vêris fruitma sunt. Id. Ocâli concôdores corpôri. Colum. Multis bôuis ficibilis. Hor. More set terribilis iis, quòrum, etc. Cic.

(a) The following are some of the adjectives included in Rem. 1, viz. grätus, acceptus, dulcis, jūcandus, letus, suāvis; ingrātus, insuāvis, injacundus, molestus, grātis, decrbus, odiosus, tristis;—atilis, inailis, bonus, sulaber, sulaidiris, fructuosus; cellimitosus, damnosus, funcsus, nocrius, pestfer, perticiosus, ectimisus, combenerolus, carius, familiaris, equus, fulus, filelis, projatius, sécundus; tunicus, adcersus, emalus, dlicinus, contrârius, infestus, injulus, injunus, ivatus;—apus, accommodatus, appostus, hobblis, idoneus, opportunus; inequas, inhabilis, importainus; inconveniens;—espudis, par, impar, dispar, similis, dissimilis, absimilis, disolor:—provinus, prorpous, protivis, propensus, promptus, pardius—facilis, infectus, conspicuus, mainfestus, perspicuus, obstarus, certus, compertus, notus, ambiguus, dabius, inpatas, incertus, insolitus;—vicinus, funitus, conferminus, propior, proximus, cognatus, conclor, concors, congruus, consanguineus, consentateus, consentateu

(b.) Many adjectives of other significations, including some compounds of ob, sub, and super, as obnoxins, obvius, subjectus, supplex, and superstes, are also followed by a dative of the object.

(c.) After verbals in bilis, the dative is usually rendered by the preposition by; as, Tibi crédibilis sermo, A speech credible to you, i. e. worthy to be believed by you. Ovid.

(d.) The expression dicto audiens, signifying obedient, is followed by the dative; as, Syrausain nobis dicto audientes sunt. Cic. Audiens dicto fuit jussis magistratuum. Nep. In this phrase, dicto is a dative limiting audiens, and the words dicto audiens seem to form a compound equivalent to obediens, and, like that, followed by a dative; thus, Nec plebs nobis alicto audiens atque obediens sit. Liv. So dicto obediens; as, Fütüru es dicto obediens, annon, patri? Plant.

REM. 2. (a.) The adjectives equālis, affinis, āliēnus, cognāminis, commūnis, contrārius, fidus, insutus, por, dispur, pēculiaris, proprius, propinquus, sācer, similis, assimilis, asimilis, asimi

(b.) Similis, assimilis, consimilis, dissimilis, par and dispar, take the genitive, when an internal resemblance, or a resemblance in character or disposition, is to be expressed, and hence we always find mei, tui, sui, nostri, vestri, similis; as, Plures reges Rönntil quam Nume similes. Liv.

(c.) Amicus, inimicus, and fămiliāris, owing to their character as substantives, take a genitive even in the superlative; as, Ilömo âmicisāmus nostrõrum hôminum,—very friendly to our countrymen. Cic. On the other hand, hostis, though a substantive, is sometimes used like an adjective, being modified by

an adverb, and taking an object in the dative; as, Exspectantibus omnibus quisnam esset tam impius, tam demens, tam diis hominibusque hostis, qui, etc. Cf. § 277, R. 1.

REM. 3. Some adjectives with the dative are followed by another case denoting a different relation; as, Mens sibi conscia recti, A mind conscious to itself of rectitude. Virg. See § 213, R. 7.

REM. 4. Many adjectives, instead of the dative of the object, are often followed by an accusative with a preposition.

- (1.) Adjectives signifying useful, fit, and the opposite, take an accusative of the thing with ad, but only a dative of the person; as, Hōmo ad nullam rem ūtilis. Cic. Lōcus aptus ad insidias. Id.
- (2.) Adjectives denoting motion or tendency, take an accusative with admore frequently than a dative; as, Piger ad pcmas, ad præmia vēlox, Ovid; Ad āliquem morbum prēctivior, Cic.; Ad omne facinus pārātus, Id.; Prōnus ad fidem, Liv.;—sometimes with in; as, Cēler in pugnam. Sil.
- (3.) Many adjectives, signifying an affection of the mind, may have an accusative of the object with in, erga, or adversus, instead of the dative; as, Fidelis in files. Just. Mater acerba in suos partus. Ovid. Grātus erga me. Cic. Grātum adversus te. Id. So Dissāmālis in dominum. Tac.
- (4.) Adjectives signifying like, equal, common, etc., when plural, are often followed by the accusative with inter; as, Inter se similes. Cic. Hæe sunt inter eos communia. 1d. Inter se diversi. Id.
- Rem. 5. Propior and proximus, instead of the dative, have sometimes, like their primitive prope, an accusative; as, Quod vitum propius virtūtem ėrat. Sall. P. Crassus proximus māre Oceanum hičmārat. Cass. Ager, qui proximus finem Mēgalopolitārum est. Liv. Cf. § 338, 1.
- Rem. 6. (a.) Some adjectives, instead of the dative, have at times an ablative with a preposition. Thus, par, commanis, consentaneus, discors, with cum; as, Quem parem cum liberis fécisit. Sall. Consentaneum cum its literis. Cic. Civitis sectum discors. Liv. So alli nus and diversus with a or ab; as, Allienus ane, Ter.; A ratione diversus, Cic.; or without a preposition; as, Allienus nostra amicitia. 14-(b.) Fretus, which regularly takes the abhative, is in Livy construed with the dative; as, fortime frieus; nulli rei frieus, etc. Cf. 244.—(c.) The participial adjectives junctus and conjunctus, instead of the dative, take sometimes the abhative either with or without cum.
- REM. 7. Mem is sometimes followed by the dative, chiefly in the poets; as, Jöpiter omnibus idem. Virg. Invitum qui screat, idem fact occidenti. Hor. In the first example, omnibus is a dative of the object; in the second, the dative follows idem, in initation of the Greek construction with ωντάς, and is equivalent to quod orcidens, or quod fact is, qui occidit. Similis is construed in the same manner in Hor. Sat. 1, 3, 122. Idem is generally followed not by a case, but by qui, ac, cupe, ut, quads, or quam; sometimes by the preposition cum. Cf. § 207, R. 27, (d.) Similis and par are sometimes, like idem, followed by ac and atque.
- REM. 8. Some verbal substantives are followed by the dative, when derived from verbs governing the dative; as, Justita est obtempératio scriptis legibus institutisque populorum. Cic. Traditio âlicajus rei alteri. Id. Exprobratio cuiquam véthris fortame. Liv.

Note. A dative of the object often follows esse and other verbs, in connection with a predicate nominative or accusative, but such dative is dependent, not on the noun, but on the verb. Cf. § 227, R. 4.

## DATIVE AFTER VERBS.

§ 223. A noun limiting the meaning of a verb, is put in the dative, to denote the *object to* or *for* which any thing is, or is done; as,

Mea domus tibi pătet, My house is open to you. Cic. Pars optăre locum tecto, A part choose a site for a baiding. Virg. Tibi séris, tibi mêtis, You sow fogwirself, Putut. Livet nemini contra patrium ducêre exercitum, It is not lawful for any one to lead an army ngainst his country. Cic. Hoc tibi promitto, I promise you this. Id. Herel lateri kitālis árundo. Virg. Surdo fâbduen narras. Hor. Mihi responsum dédit. Virg. Sie vos non vôbis fertis ărâtra, bôres. Id. Omnibus bonis expédit salvam esse rempüblicam. Cic. Apptat hâbeudo ensem. Virg.

Note. The dative is thus used after all verbs, whether transitive or intransitive, personal or impersonal, and in both voices, provided their signification admits a reference as remoter object, for whom or to whose benefit or injury any thing is done. In the passive voice, from their nature, neuter verbs can only be so construct impersonally. Cf.

§ 142, 1, and § 222, 2.

REMARK 1. The dative after many verbs is rendered not by to or for, but by other prepositions, or without a preposition. Many intransitive Latin verbs are translated into English by verbs transitive, and the dative after them is usually rendered like the object of a transitive verb.—Most verbs after which the signs to and for are not used with the dative, are enumerated in this and the following sections.

Rea. 2. Many verbs signifying to favor, please, trust, assist, and their contraries, also to command, obey, serve, resist, threaten, and

be angily, take a dative of the object.

Note. The neuter verbs comprehended in this rule generally express in the verbal form the meaning of those adjectives, which are followed by the dative, (cf. § 222, R. I.) Thus, (a.) Illa thii faret, She favors yau, or is favorable to you. Ovid. Mili placibut Pomponius, minime displacibut. Cic. Qui shi f'illi. Hor. Non lived tur ville actait sed tham facelur. Id. Despiral salati suc. Id. Nope mili restru dievita use tidantor. Sall. Imperat and servit collects pécinic cuique. Hor. Obidire et pairre voluntati. Cic. Quonium faction immaiorum résistère néquirérit. Sall. Mili minibătur. Cic. Irasci nifmicis. Cess.

(b.) So Adulor, assentior, bandior, commido, faveo, grāfificor, grāfor, grāfiflor, and its verbal grāfiflomatus, ignosco, indulgeo, lāndion, palyor, parce, plaudo, respondeo, stūdeo, supprāraštor; emūdor, incommūdo, invideo, nūceo, obsum, of feio;—arrideo, piaceo, displeco;—crēdo, filo, confito; despēro, difilor-adminicitor, auxilior, nūcleor, mēdicor, pūtūlor, patricinor, prēsum, subtēnio, succurro; dēsum, insidior;—impēro, auxado, mūdēror, pareipo, tempēro, auxaduto, morigēror, öbēdio, obsequado, obsequor, obtempēro, pārco, dicto audeins sum;—ancillor, famīdor, ministro, servio, obsequido, sond, ehiely in the poets, bello, certa, luctor, pagno:—minor, comminor, internior, presson, succurso, stūmakor.—To these may be added agrae, advago, convictor, degenero, excello, mōo, suppētīto, paccartor, recipro pressudoro, distadeo, suppētīto, paccartor, recipro pressudoro, despēdio, luctor, pagno:—minor, comminor, internedionals existentes pareido, paccartor, recipro pressudoro, despēdio, luctor, pagnot, excello, mōo, suppētīto, paccartor, recipro paccartor, exception, luctor, pagnot, excello, mōo, suppētīto, paccartor, recipro paccartor, exception, luctor, pagnot, etc.—(c.) Intransitive verbs governing a dative are often used imperonals of paccartor, the passive with the same case; as, moi invibitur, I am envied. Mihi matēdicitur, I am reviled. Mihi parcitur, I am spared. Hor. Hoc persuādētur mihi, I am persuaded of this.

(1.) (a.) Many of the above verbs, which, as intransitive, take the dative, sometimes become transitive and are followed by an accusative; as, didlor, ausculto, blandior, digitairo, despiro, includgeo, lateo, mèdeor, médicor, modéror, obtrecto, prosibor, prôvideo, etc.; as, Adalari aliquem. Cic. Hanc care digitaires, Ovid. Indulgeo me. Ter. Hajus adventum pressions. Cas. Prôvidere rem frimmentariam. Id.—Sometimes also by a preposition and the ablative or accusative; as, A Stôcis digitairit Pânatius. Cic. De républica desperare, Id. Obtrectarunt inter se. Nep.—or by a dependent clause; as, Quæ despérat tractata intescère posse, rélinquit. Hor.

- (b.) Others, as transitive verbs, have, with the dative, an accusative, expressed or understood; as, impèro, mando, ministro, minor, comminor, internition, practipio, récipio, rénuncio, etc.; as, Equites impèrat civitatibus; where dogendos is perhaps to be supplied, He cujoins upon the states the providing of cavalry. Cass. See § 274, R. 5. Ministrâre victum alicui. Varr. Deflagrationem write it faille tôt mindotur. Cic.
- (c.) Æquo and adequo are construed with the accusative and either the dative or cum with the ablative.—Invideo takes either a single dative of the person or thing, a dative of the person and an accusative of the thing; as, Hōnōrem mihi invident. Hor.; or, when invidere is used in the sense of privare, a dative of the person and an ablative of the thing; as, Non inviderant lande sua malièribus. Liv. In Horace, by a Greek construction, the genitive is once used instead of the accusative or ablative of the thing; as, Nèque ille sépositi cicèria nec lonca invidet decina.
- (d.) Ctdo, used transitively, takes a dative of the person and an accusative of the hing; but sometimes the thing is expressed by the ablative; as, ctdbre ditent possessione hordrum. So, also, concide this brum, or concide this brum.
- (2.) Many verbs which, from their significations, might be included in the above classes, are, as transitive verbs, only followed by an accusative; as, delecto, jivo, adjito, adjito, leedo, offendo, etc.—Jabeo is followed by the accusative with an infinitive, and sometimes by the accusative alone, or the dative with the infinitive or subjunctive; as, Jabeo to beine spērāre. Cic. Lex jūbet en quæ fácienda sunt. Id. Ubi Britannico jussit exsurgère. Tac. Quibus jussèrat, ut instantibus résistèrent. Id.—Fido and confido are often followed by the ablative, with or without a preposition; as, Fidère cursu. Ovid. Cf. § 245.
- § 224. Many verbs compounded with these eleven prepositions, ăd, anter con, in, inter, ob, post, præ, prō, sŭb, and sŭpěr, are followed by the dative; as,

Annue coptis, Be favorable to our undertakings. Virg. Römfinis equitables litere affermatur, Letters are brought to the Roman knights. Cic. Antécellère omnibus, To excel all. 1d. Antéculir revellejonem. Nep. Audetque viris concurrère virgo. Virg. Exercitum exercitui, duces dicibus compérâre. Liv. Immethis aër. Ovid. Pecofor signum impressit. Virg. Now prelio intervênt. Liv. Interdicit histrionibus scénam. Suet. Meis commodis afficis et obstas. Cic. Cun se hostium tells objectissent. Id. Posthibain mea séria lido. Virg. Certâmin præsédit. Suet. Hibernis Labienum præpósait. Cæs. Gentbus prócumbére. Ovid. Miscris succurrère disco. Virg. Ils subsidia submittébat. Cæs. Timidis supervenit Lejel. Virg.

Note 1. This rule implies that the compound retains the meaning of the preposition; and the dative following such compound is then used instead of the case governed by the preposition. When such compounds are transitive they have with the dative an accusative also, like other transitive verbs.

- 1. Accelo, accreso, accumbo, acquiesco, ādēputio, adhoreo, adjáceo, adno, adrāto, adsto, adstom, adversor, affulgeo, allabor, allado, anmo, appareo, applaudo, approprinquo, arripo, arrideo, aspito, assittor, assitto, assitso, assuesco, assuego;—addo, adhibeo, adjicio, adjungo, admõveo, adeerio, adcolvo, affero, affego, alligo, appono, applico, aspeco.
- 2. Antěcědo, antěcello, anteeo, antesto, antěvěnio, antěverto; antěfěro, antěhábeo, antěpôno.
- 3. Cohereo, colludo, concino, congruo, consentio, consuno, consuesco, conviro, and, chiefly in the poets, coco, concumbo, concurro, contendo;—confero, conjungo, comparo, comparo,
- 4. Incido, incübo, incumbo, indormio, ingemisco, Inharco, Inhio, innascor, innitor, institeo, insisto, insto, insudo, insulto, invedio, invegio, illado, immineo, immoror, impendeo, insum;—immisco, imperito, impôno, imprimo, incido, intuo, infero, ingero, injicio, hustro, inspergo, insuesco, tharo.
- 5. Intercedo, intercedo, interchado, interjaceo, intermaco, intersum, intervenio; -interdeco, interjecio, interpono.

Obavibilo, Sberro, Sbēquito, obluctor, obmurmūro, obrēpo, obsio, obsisto, obstrepo, 1, obrecto, obrēnio, obrersor, occumbo, occurro, occurso, officio;—obduco, objicio, offundo, oppino.

tfero, posthábeo, postpono, postputo, postscribo.

cēdo, pracurro, praeo, pralūceo, pramineo, praniteo, prasideo, prasum, pravertor;—prafēro, praficio, prapūno.

mbo, profício, propugno, prospicio, provideo.

10. Succēdo, succresco, succumbo, succurro, sufficio, sufragor, subdleo, subjeco, subsum, subvenio;—subdo, subjecio, subjugo, submitto, suppono, substerno.

11. Supercurro, supersto, supersum, supervenio, supervivo.

Note 2. In some verbs compounded with prepositions the meaning of the preposition is lost. Such compounds are either not followed by a dative, or the case depends, not on the preposition, but on the signification of the verb, according to § 223.

REMARK 1. (a.) Some verbs, compounded with \$ds\$, \$ex\$, circum, and control refs, are occasionally followed by the dative; as, \$dssum, \$desum, 
REM. 2. Some verbs of repelling and taking away (most of which are compounds of bd, dc, or es), are sometimes followed by the dative, though more commonly by the ablative; as, dbfgo, abrigo, abscinde, auféro, ddimo, wreeo, dffendo, demo, dipello, dérogo, ditráho, éripio, éripo, éripo, excitio, extmo, extorqueo, extraho, exam, problèbe, surripio. Thus, Nec unhi te êripient, Nor shall they take von from me. Ovid. Solstitum pecori dif-nultie. Virg. Hune arcibis pecori. Id. So rarely abrumpo, difton, furor, and repio.

REM. 2. Some verbs of differing (compounds of di or dis) likewise occur with the dutive, instead of the ablative with the preposition db, or poetically with the ablative alone; as, diff or, discreppe, discorde, dissentie, dissidee, disto; as, Quantum simplex habrisque népôti discrèpet, et quantum discordet, paradyaro. Hor. Distabli intello scurrer àmicus. Hor. Graceis Tuscànicas statuae dif-ferunt. Quint. Comedia differt sermoni. Hor. So likewise misceo; as, Mista modestita gràcitus. Cic.

REM. 4. Many verbs compounded with prepositions, especially with ad, con, and in, instead of the dative, either constantly or occasionally take the case of the preposition, which is frequently repeated. Sometimes, also, a preposition of similar signification is used; as, Ad primam vicem timidas advertitis aures, Ovid. Nimo eum antiecssis. Nep. Saga rides sold codescire calce. Lucr. Information main in ignem. Cas. Silex incumbibat ad ammem. Virg. Innixus moderanine nairis. Ovid. In Pansum frateren innixus. Plin. Conferte have paren enn illo bello. Cic. In this substitution of one preposition for another, ad is used for in, and in for ad; ab for ex; dd, anté, contra, and in, for ôb; ad and anté, for prò.

Rem. 5. Neuter verbs of motion or of rest in a place, when compounded with the prepositions, åd, antê, côn, in, etc., either take the dative, or, acquiring an active signification, are followed by the accusative; as, Helbetin Fellows Gallos virtate præcedunt, The Helvetii surpass the other Gauls in valor. Cæs. Uterque, Isocratem ætate præceurit. Cic. So præco, præsto, præverto, præcello. See § 233, (3) f

§ 225. Verbs compounded with sătis, bĕne, and măle, are followed by the dative; as,

Et nättræ et lögtbus såtisfeit, He satisfied both nature and the laws. Cic. Tibi dii bënë acinat omnes, May all the gods bless you. Plaut. But also, Amicum ergu bëne frei. Id. Malklicit utrique. Hor. So såtisdo, bënkitco, malkf acio.

Nors. These compounds are often written separately; and the datire always depends not on satis, bene, and male, but on the simple verb. So, also, bene and male alteut volo: as, Tibi böne ex antmo volo. Ter. Illi ego ex omnibus optime volo. Plant. Non-tibi mide vult. Petron. In like manner valer alto, and vule due; as, Augustus discedens (e cûrid) sedentibus singülis valère dictibut. Suct. Tibi valdutere non fitest gratis. Sen.—In late writers bêndrêce and maledate sometimes take the accusative.

II. Verbs in the passive voice are sometimes followed by a dative of the agent, chiefly in the poets and the later prose writers; as, Quidyaid in hac cass milli susceptum est. Cic. Neque cernitur ulli, Nor is he seen by any one. Virg. Nulla twarum auditu milhi noque risa sororum. Id. Barbarus hic égo sum, quia non intellizor ulli. Ovid. But the agent after passives is usually in the ablative with a or ab. See § 248, I.

III. The participle in dus is followed by a dative of the agent;

Unda omnibus örärlganda, The wave over which (we) all must pass. Hor. Nöbis, cum sömel occidit brëvis lux, Nox est perpetua una dormienda. Catull. Achibenda est nobis diligentia, We must use diligence. Cic. Vestigia summörum höminum sibi tuenda esse dicit. Id. Si vis me flöre, dölcudum est primum ipsi tibi. Hor. Faciendum mith juhtaci, ut responderen. Id.

REMARK 1. The dative is sometimes wanting when the agent is indefinite; as, Orandum est, ut sit mens same in corpore same. Juv. Hic vincendum aut motiendum, milites, est. Liv. In such examples, tibi, vöbis, nöbis, höminibus, etc., may be supplied. Cf. § 141, R. 2.

REM. 2. The participle in das sometimes, though rarely, has, instead of the dative of the agent, an sublative with \(\tilde{a}\) or \(\tilde{c}\); as, \(\tilde{N}\) or \(\tilde{c}\); as, \(\tilde{N}\) or \(\tilde{c}\); as, \(\tilde{N}\) or \(\tilde{c}\); and \(\tilde{c}\); and \(\tilde{c}\) or \(\tilde{c}\); and \(\

IV. Verbs signifying motion or tendency are followed by an accusative with ăd or in; as,

Ad templum Palládis ibant. Virg. Ad prætörem höminem traxit. Cic. Vergit ad septemtriones. Cæs. In conspectum rénire. Nep.

So curro, dūco, fěro, festino, fřágio, inclino, lēgo, mitto, pergo, porto, præciptto, propěro, tendo, tollo, vado, verto.

REMARK 1. So likewise verbs of calling, exciting, etc.; as, Eurum ad so vocat. Virg. Provocasse ad pugnam. Cic. So animo, hortor, incito, invito, lacesso, stimulo, suscito; to which may be added attineo, conformo, pertineo, and specto.

Rem. 2. But the dative is sometimes used after these verbs; as, Clāmor it cedo. Virg. Dum thi literæ mæ véniant. Cic. Grégem viride compellère hibisco. Virg. Scillbus hunc réfer ante suis. Id. After vénio both constructions are used at the same time; as, Vēnit mihi in mentem. Cic. Vēnit mihi in suspicionem. Nep. Eum vēnisse Germānis in amicitiam cognōrērat. Cæs. Propinquo (to approach) takes the dative only.

REM. 3. Sometimes also verbs signifying motion are followed by an accusative of place without a preposition, a supine in mm, an infinitive, or an adverb of place; as, Rōman pròfectus est. Ite dōmum. Rus ibam. Lāvinia vēnit lītoru. Virg. Nēyne cyo te dērīsum vēnio. Plaut. Non nos Lībīgos pōpulāre pinites vēnimus. Virg. Huc vēnit. Plaut. See §§ 237, 276, II. 271, N. 2.

REM. 4. After do, scribo, or mitto literas, the person for whom they are written or to whom they are sent, is put either in the dative or in the accusative with ad; as, Ex co loco tibi literas ante dederamus. Cic. Fulturcius literas site

ad Catllinam datas esse, dicibat. Id. Cesan scribit Labieno cum, etc. Cass. Ad me Carius de le scripsit. Cic. But to give one a letter to deliver is also expressed by dare literas dilcui, and also the delivery of the letter by the bearer.

§ **226**.—Est is followed by a dative denoting a possessor;—the thing possessed being the subject of the verb.

Est thus used may generally be translated by the verb to have with the dative as its subject; as, Est mini dômi pâter, I have a father at home. Virg. Sunt nôbis mitia pôma, We have mellow apples. Id. Grātiā nôbis ôpus est tuā, We have need of your favor. Cic. Innôcentice plus pêricāti quam hônôris est. Sall. An resis longas règibus esse mânus? Ovid. So with an infinitive as the subject, Nec tibi sit dâros ācuisse in prelia dentes. Tib. 4, 3, 3. The first and second persons of sum are not thus construed.

REMARK 1. Hence mihi est nomen signifies, I have the name, my name is, or 1 am called. The proper name is put either in the nominative, the dative, or the genitive. See § 204, R. 8. So also cognomen, cognomentum, and, in Tacitus, rotābūlum, est mihi.—Sometimes, also, a possessive adjective agreeing with nomen, etc., supplies the place of the proper name; as, Est mihi nomen Tarquinium. Gell. Mercūriāle impōsucre mihi cognomen. Hor.

REM. 2. The dative is used with a similar signification after fore, suppostic, ditest, deest, and dēfit; as, Pauper čnim non est, oui rêrum suppsiti ûsus. Hor. Si mihi cauda foret, cercópithecus éram. Mart. D'fut ars voltis. Ovid. Non defire Arsacldis virtûtem. Tac. Lac mihi non dêfit. Virg. Hoc ûnum illi abfuit. Cic.

REM. 3. With the dative of the person after est Sallust and Tacitus sometimes join by a Greek didom, volens, căpiens, and invitus; as, Quia néque plébi militar volenti (esse) pătăbătur, Because the common people were not thought to like the war. Sall. Ut quibusque bellum invitis aut căpientibus êrat, According as each liked or disliked the war. Tac.

#### DATIVE OF THE END OR PURPOSE.

§ 227. Sum, and several other verbs, are followed by two datives, one of which denotes the *object to which*, the other the end for which, any thing is, or is done; as,

Mihi maximæ est cūrae, It is a very great care to me. Cic. Spēro nöbis hane conjunctionen voluptāti före, I hope this union will afford us pleasure. In Marri puellum dono dēdit. Ter. Fābi laudi dētum est. Cic. Vitio id tibi errtumt. Plaut. Id tibi hönöri hābētur. Cic. Mātūrārit collegæ vēnīre auxilio. Liv. Cui böno fuit? To whom was it an advantage? Cic.

REMARK 1. The verbs after which two datives occur, are sum, fore, fio, do, dono, daco, habeo, rélinquo, tribuo, verto; also curro, eo, milto, proficiscor, vênio, appono, assigno, cédo, comparo, pateo, suppédito, èmo, and some others.

Them. 2. The dative of the end or purpose is often used after these verbs, without the dative of the object; as,

Exemplo est formica, The ant is (serves for) an example. Hor. Absentium bona divisui fuëre. Liv. Réliquit pignôri pătâmina. Plant. Que ësui et pôtul sunt. Gell. Esse dërisui, To be a subject of ridicule. Tac. Réceptul câmére, To sound a retreat. Cas. Alquid dôti dicâre, To set out as dowry. Cic.

REM. 3. (a.) The verb sum, with a dative of the end, may be variously rendered; as by the words brings, affords, serves, does, etc. The sign for is often omitted with this dative, especially after sum; instead of it, as, or some other particle, may at times be used; as,

Ignāria ērit tibi magno dēdēcŏri, Cowardice will bring great disgrace to you. Cic. Hac res est argumento, This thing is an argument, or serves as an argument. Id. Hac vitio mhit dant, This they set down as a fault in me. Untersos cūræ hābuit. Suet. Una res ērat magno ūsui. ... was of great use. Lucil. Quod tibi magnopēre corii est, mhi vēhēmenter dasplicet, What is a great pleasure, an object of peculiar interest to you, etc. Id.

(b.) Sometimes the words fit, able, ready, etc., must be supplied, especially before a gerund or a gerundive; as, Quum solvendo cirtídies non essent, ... not able to pay. Cic. Dirtes, qui ônéri férendo essent. Liv. Quæ restinguendo igni fórent. Liv. Rādiæ ejus est vescendo. Plin.

REM. 4. Instead of the dative of the end, a predicate nominative or accusative is sometimes used; as, Nātūrā tu illi pāter es, By nature you are his father. Amor est exitium pēcēri: or the purpose is expressed by the accusative with ad or in; as, Aheui cómes est ad bellum. Cic. Se Rēmis in clientēlam dicābant. Cæs.: or by the ablative with pro; as, Innôceulia pro mālīvolientiā dūci cepit. Sall. Aklūbus sant arbūres pro cūbilithus. Cæs.

REM. 5. Instead, also, of the dative of the end or purpose, quo? to what end? for what purpose? why? sometimes occurs, with an accusative, which generally depends on a verb understood, or with an infinitive or a clause; as, Quo mihi fortunum, si non conceditur ait? Hor. Quo tibi, Pasiphae, prétissas samére vestes? Ovid.

REM. 6. After do and other similar active verbs an accusative of the purpose is found in apposition; as, Lâtini côrônam auream Jôri dônum in Câptiblium mitlant. Liv. Afrai comitem esse dâtum. Cic. Cf. § 204, R. 1; and § 230, R. 2.

Note. The dative, instead of the accusative, is sometimes used after the infinitive, when a dative precedes, and the subject of the infinitive is omitted; as, Vibis nõtesse est fortibus esse viris. Liv. Maximo tibi et civi et düci ēvādēre contigit. Val. Max. See §§ 205, R. 6, and 239, R. 1.

# DATIVE AFTER PARTICLES.

§ 228. Some particles are followed by the dative of the object; as,

1. Some adverbs derived from adjectives; as,

Própius Tibèri quam Thermöpÿlis. Nep. Proxime custris, Very near to the camp. Cees. Pròpius stabilis armenta tênérent. Virg. Congruenter nature, convénienterque vivere, Agreeably to nature. Cic. Epitâres quam sibi constanter convénienterque dicat, non laborat. Id. Nemini nimiam bêne est. Afran. Mhi numquam in vită fui millus. Hor. Vivere vitre homium minice. Cic. Bène milli, bêne vöbis. Plant. So, Mhi obrium vênisti. Cic. In certamina savo communs ire vivo. Sil. Quastòres pròvincia milli prasto fuerunt. Cic. Samos est exaderersum Mileto. App.

REMARK. Própius and proxime, like their primitive pròpe, are sometimes construed with a and the ablative; as, Própe a meis ædibus. Cic. Stella errantes própius a terris. Id. A Surā proxime est Philiscum, oppidum Parthôrum. Plin.

Certain prepositions, especially in comic writers; as, Mihi clam est, It is
unknown to me. Plaut. Contra nöbis. Id. But in such instances they seem
rather to be used like adjectives.

3. Certain interjections; as, Hei mihi! Ah me! Virg. Væ mihi! Wo is me! Ter. Væ victis esse! Liv. Væ miséro mihi. Plaut. Hem tibi. Id. Ecce tibi. Cic.

Note. (a.) The dative of the substantive pronouns seems sometimes nearly redundant, but it always conveys the expression of a lively feeling, and is therefore termed datieus ēthicus; as,

Fur mihi es, .... in my opinion. Plaut. An ille mihi liber, cui mülier impērat? Cic. Tongilium mihi ēduzīt. Id. Ubi nunc nöbis deus ille māgister? Virg. Ecce tibi Sebāsus! Cic. Hem tibi tidentum argenti! Philippicum est. Plaut. Sibi is sometimes subjoined quite pleonastically to suus; as, Suo sibi glādio hunc jūgūlo. Plaut. Pinōrans suo sibi servii patri. Id. Sibi suo tempōre. (b.) The following phrases also occur with vibo and a reflexive pronoun; quid dibi vis? what do you want? quid sibi iste vult? what does he want? quid wult sibi hece brādio? what does this speech mean? quid hece sibi dōna vollunt? what is the meaning of these presents? or, what is their object?

### ACCUSATIVE.

# ACCUSATIVE AFTER VERBS.

§ 229. The object of a transitive verb is put in the accusative; as,

Lēgātos mittunt, They send ambassadors. Cæs. Animus movet corpus, The mind moves the body. Cic. Da veniam hanc, Grant this favor. Ter. Eum tmitāti sunt, They imitated him. Cic. Piscem Syri venerantur. Id.

REMARK 1. A transitive verb, with the accusative, often takes a genitive, dative, or ablative, to express some additional relation; as,

Te convinco amentiæ, I convict you of madness. Cic. Da löcum mělioribus, Give place to your betters. Ter. Solvit se Teucria Inctu, Troy frees herself from grief. Virg. See those cases respectively.

REM. 2. Such is the difference of idiom between the Latin and English languages, that many verbs considered transitive in one, are used as intransitive in the other. Hence, in translating transitive Latin verbs, a preposition must often be supplied in English; as, Ut me caveret, That he should beware of me. Cic. On the other hand, many verbs, which in Latin are intransitive, and do not take an accusative, are rendered into English by transitive verbs; as, Ille mihi favet, He favors me: and many verbs originally intransitive acquire a transitive signification.

REM. 3. The verb is sometimes omitted:-

1. To avoid its repetition; as, Eventum senatus, quem (scil. dare) videbitur,

2. The interrogative interjection quid? what? depends on ais or censes. So also quid vēro? quid igitur? quid ergo? quid enim? which are always followed by another question, and both questions may be united into one proposition, by another question, and both questions may be united into one proposition, the first serving merely to introduce the interrogation. With quid posteaf quid turn? supply séquitur. With quid quod, occurring in transitions, dicam de ce is somitted, but it may be rendered 'nay,' 'nay even,' 'but now,' 'more-over,' etc., without an interrogation.—Dicam is also to be supplied with quid multa? quid plant? In emulta; ne plant. The infinitive dicêre is also sometimes omitted; as, Nimis multa videor de me. Cic. Perge réliqua. Id.

Rese. 4. The accusative is often omitted:

1. When it is a reflexive pronoun; as, Nox pracipitat, scil. se. Virg. Tum prora avertit. Id. Eo lavatum, scil. me. Hor.

The reflexives are usually wanting after aboleo, abstineo, accingo, adaquo, aquo, agglimero, augeo, celero, congemino, continuo, dectino, decoquo, desino, differo, duro, ermpo, flecto, deflecto, facesso, incipio, inclino, insinuo, irrumpo, jungo, lavo, laxo, terming, freeze, acqueeze, facesses, incomes, incomes, terming, faces, acqueeze, faces, acqueeze, faces, fa

2. When it is something indefinite, has been previously expressed in any case, or is easily supplied; as, Ego, ad quos scribam, nescio, scil. literas. Cic. De quo et têcum egi diligenter, et scripsi ad te. Id. Bene fecit Silius. Id. Ducit in hostem, scil. exercitum. Liv.

REM. 5. An infinitive, or one or more substantive clauses, may supply the place of the accusative after an active verb; as,

Da mihi fallëre. Hor. Reddes dulce löqui, reddes ridëre dëcorum. Id. Cupio me esse clëmentem. Cic. Athënienses siduërunt ut naves conscendërent. Id. Vëreor ne a doctis rëprëhendar. Id. Euce, Bacche, sonat. Ovid. Sometimes both constructions are united; as, Di iram misërantur indinem amborum, et tantos mortalibus esse labores. Virg.—Respecting the infinitive with and without a subject-accusative after an active verb, see § 270-273; and for the subjunctive after such verbs, see § 278.

(a.) In such constructions, the subject of the dependent clause is sometimes put in the accusative as the object of the leading verb; as, Nosti Marcellum, quam tardus sit, for Nosti quam tardus sit Marcellus. Cic. Illum, ut vivat, optant. Ter. At te égo fáciam, ut minus váleas. Plant.

(b.) An ablative with de may also supply the place of the accusative, by the ellipsis of some general word denoting tlings, facts, etc., modified by such ablative; as, De republic avestra paacies accipe. Sall. Compare a similar omission of a subject modified by de and the ablative, § 209, R. 3, (2.)

REM. 6. The impersonal verbs of feeling, miseret, pænitet, püdet, tædet, piget, miserescit, miseretur, and pertusum est, are followed by an accusative of the person exercising the feeling, and a genitive of the object in respect to which it is exercised. Cf. § 215, (1.); as,

Eōrum nos misēret, We pity them. Cic. The impersonal Vēritum est also occurs with such an accusative; Quos non est vērītum pōnēre, etc. Cic.

REM. 7. Juvat, delectat, fallit, fügit, præterit, and decet, with their compounds, take an accusative of the person; as,

Te hilari animo esse valde me jūvat, That you are in good spirits greatly delights me. Cic. Fügit me ad te scrib're. Cic. Illud alterum quam sit diffictle, te non fūgit. Id. Noc vero Cressirem fifellit. Cas. Fūcis, ut te döcet. Ter. So also when used personally; as, Parvum parra décent. Hor.; but décet often takes the accusative of the person with the infinitive; as, Hanc miculam nos décet effügère. Ter.; and in comic writers a dative; as, Volts décet. Ter.

For mea, tua, sua, nostra, vestra, after  $r\bar{e}fert$  and  $int\bar{e}rest$ , see § 219, R. 1: and for the accusative by attraction, instead of the nominative, see § 206, (6,) (b.)

§ 236. Verbs signifying to name or call; to choose, render or constitute; to esteem or reckon, which in the passive voice have two nominatives, are followed in the active voice by two accusatives, one of the *object* and the other of the *predicate*. Cf. § 210, R. 3, (3.); as,

Urbem ex Antiochi patris nomine Antiochiam rocavit, He called the city Antioch, etc. Just. Lūdos fácis me, You make game of me. Plaut. Me consulem fřeistis. Cic. Iram bêne Emitus Initium dixit insanies. Id. Ancum Marcium regem populus creavit. Liv. Sulpicium accūsatorem saum nüméràbat, non compétitorem. Cic. Quam vos testes habeam. Nep.

Note 1. The following are among the verbs included in this rule, viz. appello, dico, and thin numerino, prévideo, sdiato, scribo and inscribo, vico; cápio, constituo, creo, delico, deligo, designo, dico, dico, digo, officio, instituo, lego, priodo, redo, réuncio; dico, dignor, existimo, habeo, júdico, nüméro, pūto, repério, intelligo, invênio, se præber or prastâre, etc.

NOTE 2. An ablative with ex occurs, though rarely, instead of the accusative of the object; as, Fortūna me, qui liber fuiram, servum fēcit, e summo infimum. Plaut. Cf. Qui recta prāva fūciumt. Ter.

Note 3. An infinitive may supply the place of the objective accusative; as, Si simulasse vocat crimen. Ovid.:—and sometimes of the predicate accusative

also; as, Si répérire vôcas amittère certius; aut si seire abi sit répérire vôcas. Id. So also an adjective may supply the place of the predicate accusative; as, Prabuit se dignum suis màjoribus. Cic. Cusărem certiorem făciuni. Cass.

REMARK 1. After verbs signifying to esteem or reckon, one of the adeusatives is often the subject, and the other the predicate, of esse expressed or understood; as,

Eum avarum possionus existimāre. Cic. Tālem se impēratōrem prabuit. Nepprasta te cum, qui milie es cognītus. Cic. Mercūrium omnium inventōrem artium fērunt; hunc viārum atque itinērum dūcem arbitrantur. Cess.; or an adjective supplies the place of the predicate accusative; as, Ne me existimāris ad mānendum esse propensiōrem. Cic.

NOTE 4. Instead of the predicate accusative, (1) pro with the ablative sometimes follows pâto, dâco, and hâbeo, but denotes only an approximation; as, Aliquid pro certo hâbere or pâtâre. En pro falisis dâcit. Sall. Aliquem pro hoste hâbere. Cas.—So also în with the ablative; as, Nihi preter vivitaem in bônishabêre. Cas.—So also în with the ablative; as, Cit.—So also e or ex with the ablative; as, Cit. professed in numero hostimu dâcere. Cic.—and the ablative without in; as, Uti vas affinium loco dâcerem. Sall.—So also e or ex with the ablative; as, Cit. facere quad e republică fuldage suă dâceret. Liv.—Sometimes (2) the genitive; as, Officii duxit exbrâre filice patrem. Snet. (See § 211, R. 8, (3.) So with a genitive or an ablative of price or value; as, Pâtâre dâquem nihlo. Cic. Nou hâbeo nauci Marsum augărem. Enn—and sometimes (3) a dâtive; as, Quando tu me hâbes despicătui. Plaut:—or an adverb; as, Ægre hâbuit, filium id pro pârente ausum. Liv. And (4) ad or în with the accusative; as, Loca ad hibernāchla lēgēre. Liv. Aliquem in Patres lēgēre. Id.: or (5) the genitive depending on the ablative of cause, manner, etc.; as, Qui servitūtem deditionis nomine appellant. Cæs.

REM. 2. Many other verbs, besides their proper accusative, take a second, denoting a purpose, time, character, etc.

Such are do, tribuo, sūmo, pēto, pōno, adjungo, ascrībo, cognosco, accio, fingo, significo, etc.; as,

Quare jus fune comitem me adjungéren. Cic. Himtum ôpinio socium me arribit tuis laudibus. Id. Quos ègo sim toties jum dédignata maritos. Virg. Hunc izitur règem agnoschus, qui Plilippum dédignatur patrem? Curt. Filiam tuam mili uxorem posco. Plaut. Pètil hanc Saturnia münus. Ovid. Such constructions may otten be referred to apposition, or to an ellipsis of essa.

§ 231. Verbs of asking, demanding, and teaching, and cello (to conceal), are followed by two accusatives, one of the person, the other of the thing; as,

Hoc te rélémenter rögo. Cic. Illud te ōro, ut, etc. Id. Rōgo te nummos, I ask you for money. Mart. Posce deos véniam, Ask fivor of the gods. Virg. Quam lōgent quis mūsicam dōuderit Epiminondam, When they shall read who taught Epaminondas music. Nep. Antigious ter omnes célat, Antigionus conceals his route from all. Id. Dēprécari deos māla. Sen. Quêdide Cusar Eduos frümentum flāgitāre. Cess. Multa deos ōrans. Virg.

REMARK 1. This rule includes the verbs of asking and demanding, flagito, efflagito, obserce, ore, exiso, conside, restor, conside, percentor, posce, rejuccy, conside, prefer depretor, rejuc, and intervige, which, with the accusative of the person, take the accusative of the neuter pronouns face, id, illud, quot, quot, grow frequently than that of a substantive; of teaching, doco, &lioco, deliceo, and &rindio, which hast has two accusatives only in the poets. Adminor and consider are most focus adminute. Salt was accusatives; as, Considern, hanc remaintees. Plant. Earn rem nost focus adminute. Salt.

Rem. 2. Instead of the accusative of the person, verbs of asking and demanding often take the ablative with ab or ex; as, Non debibam abs te has literas poscère. Cic. Véniam örémus ab ipso. Virg. Istud vôlébam ex te percontàri. Plant.

REM. 3. (a.) Instead of the accusative of the thing, the ablative with de is sometimes used; as, Sic ègo te cisdem de rebus intervigem. Cic. De Hithere hostiam séndium édocet. Sail. Bassus noster me de hoc libro cédacit. Cic. Ct. § 229, R. 5, (b.)—(b.) Sometimes also instead of the accusative of the thing an infinitive, or an infinitive or subjunctive clause is used; as, Doos précari dibétis, ut urbem défendant. Cic. D'docenn Rullum postuac taceire. (l. Docui d'in nofiri posse. Id. Dôceant eum qui vir Sex. Roscins thérit. Id.—(c.) With verbs of teaching, the instrument by means of which the art is practised is put in the ablative; as, Aliquem fidibus décère. Cic. Dôcere ditquem arms. Liv. Litéra may be used either in the accusative or in the ablative; as, Te litéras divec. Cic. Docus Gracis litéris. Id.

REM. 4. Some verbs of asking, demanding, and teaching, are not followed by two accusatives; as, exigo, pito, postulo, quero, seltor, seiscitor, which, with the accusative of the thing, take an ablative of the person with the preposition ab, de, or ex; imbuo, instituo, instruo, etc., which are sometimes used with the ablative of the thing, generally without a preposition, and are sometimes otherwise construed; as, Institute aliquem ad dicendum. Cic.

REM. 5. (a.) Many active verbs with the accusative of the person, take also an accusative denoting in what respect or to what degree the action of the verb is exerted.

(b.) The accusative of degree, etc., is commonly nihil, a neuter pronoun, or a neuter adjective of quantity; as, Non quo me aliquid jacare posses. Cic. Pauca pro tempore milites hortaws. Sall. Id adjuta me. Ter. Neque est te fallier quidquam. Virg. Ci. § 232, (3.)

REM. 6. By a similar construction, genus and secus, 'sex,' are sometimes used the accusative, instead of the gentitive of quality; as, Nulus how genus righting righting the secus. Suct. Cf. 211, R. 6, (4.)

§ 232. (1.) Some neuter verbs are followed by an accusative of kindred signification to their own; as,

Vitam jūcuudam vieire, To live a pleasant life. Plaut. Mirum somniāvi somnium, I have dreamed a wonderful dream. Id. Fūrīre hanc fūrīrem Virg. Istam pugnam pugnābo. Plaut. Pugnāre dicenda Mūsis predla. Hor. Lūsum insõleuten lūdēre. Id. Si non servitūtem serviat. Plaut. Lūdēror haud fūtles questus. Stat. Jūrāri vērissimm jusjūrandum. Cic. Ignīdas jūbel tre vias. Val. Flace. So, also, bre exsēquias, To go to a funeral. Ter. Ire suppētias, To go to o.els assistance. Fre infitias, To deny. This expression is equivalent to infitior, and may like that take an accusative; as, Si hoc ūnum adjunzēro, quod nīmo ed infitias. Nep.: or the accusative with the infinitive; as, Nēpue infitias inus Sichlium nostram provinciam esse. Liv. Ut suum gaudium gaudērēmus. Col. ad Cic. Profitisci magnum iter. Cic. Pollux ūque rēditļue viam. Virg. This accusative is usually qualified by an adjective.

(2.) Verbs commonly neuter are sometimes used transitively, and are then followed by an accusative.

Accusatives are thus used with oleo and sopio, and their compounds, rédbleo, réspio; as, Olet unguenta, He smells of perfumes. Ter. Olere pèrégrinum. To have a foreign smell. Cic. Orationes rédolentes antiquitatem. Id. Mella herbam eam sāpinut, The house tastes of that herb. Plin. Ura picem réspiens. Id. So, Stio houves. Cic. Carnem pluit. Liv. Claudius aleam stádiossisme lásit. Suet. Erumpère diu coercitam iran in hostes. Liv. Libros eigitaire. Ovid. Preire verba. Liv. Nec rox houmem sonat. Virg. Sudâre mella. Id. Morientem nombe clanat. Id. Quis post vina grávem militiam aut paupériem crépat? Hor. Omnes una même noz. Id. Ingrâti animi crimen horreo. Cic. Ego mea quéror fortinas. Plant. Vivère Bacchândila. Juv. Pastrem soldiret uti Cyclopa, rógábut. Hor. So the passive; Nunc agresem Cyclopa môvetur. Id. Cemmûnia jura migrare. Id. Te rolo collòpui. Plant. Ea dissèrtre mâlui. Cic.

Cörýdon arděbat Alexin. Virg. Stýgias jūrāvimus undas. Ovid. Nāvigat æquor. Virg. Currimus æquor. Id. Pascuntur sylvas. Id.

Note 1. Accusatives are found in like manner after ambilo, calleo, döleo, čgulto, fleo, gaudeo, gžmo, glorior, horrea, fator, lairo, mato, palleo, paveo, pēreo, dēpēreo, prōcēdo, quēror, rideo, sileo, sibilo, táceo, trēmo, trēpido, vādo, vēnio, etc.

(3.) Neuter verbs and sometimes adjectives also may be followed by an accusative denoting in what respect, or to what degree, the feeling, condition, etc., is manifested; as,

Nihi làbōro. Cic. Num id lacrimat virgo? Does the maid weep on that account? Ter. Multa àlia peccat. Cic. Quicqui délirant règes, plectuatur Achiri. Hor. Nect u id indignair posses. Liv. Illud mihi lettandum video. Cic. Illud rulde tibi assentior. Id. Idem ylbriari. Id. Hee gloriaris. Liv. Hoe studet ünum. Hor.—So. Id ôpōrau do, I strive for this. Ter. Constitum pètis, quid tibi sim autor. Cic. Quod guidam autores sunt, Which is attested by some authors. Liv. Nil nostri nitsérre? Virg.—Nhil Românae plebis similis. Liv. Sinātus nihil sāne intentus. Sall. These limiting accusatives have comonly the force of adverles, particularly nihil, which is used like an emphatio non in the sense of 'in no way,' 'in no respect.' So non nihil, 'to some extent,' 'in some measure.'

Note 2. In the above and similar examples, the prepositions ob, propter, per, ad, etc., may often be supplied. This construction of neuter verbs is most common with the neuter accusatives id, quid, quid, quad, quid, quid, quid, quid, quid, nihil, nonnihil, idem, illud, tantum, quantum, inum, multa, pauca, alia, citira, omnia, etc. Cf. § 256, R. 16, N.

\$233. Many verbs are followed by an accusative depending upon a preposition with which they are compounded.

(1.) Active verbs compounded with trans, ad, and circum, have sometimes two accusatives, one depending upon the verb, the other upon the preposition; as,

Omnem équitâtum pontem transdûcit, He leads all the cavalry over the bridge. Cass. Ageslâus Hellespontum cópias trájecit. Nep. Petréius jusjūrandum ādju Afrāium. Cass. Roscillum Pomptius omnia sua prestâla circumdustit. Id. So, Pontus scöpnilos sūperjācit undam. Virg. So, also, adverto and indūco with animum; as, Id ānimum advertit. Cass. Id quod animum indaxērat paulisper non ténuit. Cic. So, also, injicio in Plautus—Ejo te mānum injiciam.

(2.) Some other active verbs take an accusative in the passive voice depending upon their prepositions; as,

Mágicas accingier artes, To prepare oneself for magic arts. Virg. In prose writers the ad is in such cases repeated; as, accingi ad considitum. Liv. Classis circuméhitur arcein. Id. Quod anguis domi vectem circumjectus fuisset. Cic. Locum pretervectus sum. Id.

(3.) Many neuter verbs, especially verbs of motion, or of rest in a place, when compounded with prepositions which govern an accusative, become transitive, and accordingly take an accusative; as,

Gentes que măre illud adjăcent, The nations which border upon that sea. Nep. Oboquitare agmen. Curt. Incédunt mastos locos. Tac. Transilui flammas, Ovid. Succodere tecta. Cic. Ludorum divibus, qui cognitionem interrenerant. Tac. Adire provinciam. Suet. Căcent ne proclium tneat. Cic. Ingrédi Iter pédibus. Cic. Ept iri horti quos môto practividamus. Id.

Note. To this rule belong many of the compounds of ambillo, cêdo, curro, eo, êquito, fluo, grādior, lābor, no and nāto, rēpo, sālio, scando, vādo, vēhor, vēhoi, vēho -eūbo, jāceo, sēleo, sisto, sto, etc., with the prepositions included in § 224, and with ex.

REMARK 1. Some neuter verbs compounded with prepositions which govern an ablative, in like manner become transitive, and are followed by an accusative; as,

Nëminem convëni, I met with no one. Cic. Qui söciëtätem coiëris. Id. Aversări hoñore. Ovid. Ursi arbörem aversi deripunt. Plin. Edorni crăpulam. Cic. Egressus exsilium. Tac. Eviditque celer ripum. Virg. Excédère numërum. Tac. Exire limen. Ter. Tibur ăquæ ferüle prefluunt. Hor.

Rem. 2. After verbs both active and neuter, compounded with prepositions which take an accusative, the preposition is often repeated, or one of similar signification is used; as,

Clesar se ad nëminem adjunxit. Cic. Multitudinem trans Rhënum in Galliam transiktëre. Cas.—In Galliam invisit Antônius. Cic. Ad me adire quosulum memini. 1d. Orator përuqrat per alumos hôminum. 1d. Në in sënatum acceletrem. 1d. Régina ad templum incessit. Virg. Juxta gënitörem adstat Lavinia. Id. Fines extra quos ëpredi non possim. Cic. A dative instead of the accusative often follows such compounds, according to § 224. Circum is not repeated.

NOTE. Some verbal nouns and verbal adjectives in *hundus* are followed by an accusative, like the transitive verbs from which they are derived; as,

Quid thi huc r'eeptio ad te est meum virum? Wherefore do you receive my husband hither to you? Plaut. Quid thi, malum, me, aut quid ègo ăgam, cărăth 'st? Id. Quid thi hanc âduto est? Id. Quid thi hanc năio est, inquam, âmleam meum? Quid thi hanc dight tuctio 'st? Id. Bumo vităbundus castra hasium constilesque. Liv. Mitridates Romanum meditabundus belium. Just. Mirābundi vânam spēciem. Liv. Pāpālābundus agros. Siseum. Carufficem tmāgtnābundus. App.

§ 234. A verb in the passive voice has the same government as in the active, except that the accusative of the active voice becomes the nominative of the passive.

NOTE 1. The accusative of the person with the infinitive, after verbs of saying and commanding, may become the subject of the passive voice; as, Active, Dico ragem esse justion:—Passive, Rex dictur justus esse. Act. Jubeo te reduce;—Pass. Jubic'is reduce the construction in the passive being the same as though regen and te had depended immediately upon dic or and jubeo.—So, also, when the accusative of the person is the object of the verb and the infinitive studies at the accusative of the thing. Cf. § 270, X.

I When a verb, which in the active voice takes an accusative both of the person and of the thing, is changed to the passive form, the accusative of the person becomes the nominative, and the accusative of the thing is retained; as,

Rögātus est sententiam, He was asked his opinion. Liv. Interrōgātus causam. Tac. Segétes allmentāque dibita dives poscēbātur hūmus. Ovid. Mētus docērī gaudet Iōnicos mātūra virgo. Hor. Omnes belli artes ēdoctus. Liv. Nosne hoc cēlātos tun diu? Ter. Multa in extis monēmur. Cic.

Note 2. The accusative of the thing after doctus and edoctus is rare; and after elari it is generally a neuter pronoun; as her or d cellabar; of this I was kept in ignorance; but it is found also with the person in the dative; as, Id Alcibidi datius cellari non potuit. Nep. Alcib. 5. Celo, and especially its passive, generally takes de with the ablative.

REMARK 1. (a.) Induo and exua, though they do not take two accusatives in the active voice, are sometimes followed by an accusative of the thing in

the passive; as, Indultur âtras vestes, She puts on sable garments. Ovid. Thoraca indultus. Virg. Exâta est Rôma sênectam. Mart. So indulcor and cingor; as, Ferrum cinglur. Virg. So récingitur anguem. Ovid.

(b.) When two accusatives follow an active verb compounded with trans, the passive retains that which depends upon the preposition; as, Belga Rhenum

antiquitus transducti. Cæs.

REM. 2. The future passive participle in the neuter gender with est, is sometimes, though rarely, followed by an accusative; as, Multa novis robus quum sit agendum. Lucr. Quam (viam) nobis ingrédiendum est. Cic.

II. Adjectives, verbs, and perfect participles, are sometimes followed by an accusative denoting the part to which their signification relates: as.

Nūdus membra, Bare as to his limbs. Virg. Os hūmērosque deo similis. Id. Clari genus. Tae. Tribāni suam vicem azarī. Liv. Trēmit artus. Virg. Cētēra price puer bello. Id. Sibila colla tūmentem. Id. Explēri mentem nēgait. Id. Grijneus ērultur ōcūlos. Ovid. Picti scūta Löbici. Virg. Collis frontem lēniter fistējātus. Cæs. Anlimum incensus. Liv. Oblius faciem suo cruôre. Tak

REMARK 1. In this construction an ablative is often joined with the perfect participle; as, Miles fractus membra labore. Hor. Dexterum genu lapide ictus. Suct. Adversum femur trägölä gräviler ictus. Liv.

REM. 2. This is a Greek construction, and is usually called the *limiting* or *Greek accusative*. It is used instead of an ablative of limitation, (§ 250,) and occurs most frequently in poetry.

REM. 3. A limiting accusative instead of the ablative is found also in a few ordinary expressions, as in partim (for partem), vicem, magnam and maximam partem, instead of magnad or maxima & parte, or the advert of five; as, Maximam partem late vicant. Cass. Magnam partem ex icambis nostra constat bratio. Cic. Livy has magna pars, viz. Nimidae, magna pars agrestes.—So cévera and riliqua are joined to adjectives in the sense of celéris, 'for the rest,' in other respects'; as, Proximum regnum, cettera grégium, ab into parte hand satis prospérum fuit. Liv. So cettera similis, cettera bonus. A te bis terre summum litèras accépi. Cic.—So, also, in the expressions id tempòris; id, hoc or idem câtis; illud höre, for oc tempòre, et actate, etc.; id gênus, omne gênus, quod gênus.

III. Some neuter verbs which are followed by an accusative, are used in the passive voice, the accusative becoming the subject, according to the general rule of active verbs; as,

Tertia vivitur ætas. Ovid. Bellum militäbitur. Hor. Dormītur hiems. Mart. Multa peccantur. Cic. Aditur Gnossius Minos. Sen. Ne ab omnībus circumsistērētur. C.v.s. Hostes invādi posse. Sall. Campus obitur āquā. Ovid. Plūres inemtur grātive. Cic. Eu res siletur. Id.

# ACCUSATIVE AFTER PREPOSITIONS.

§ 235. (1.) Twenty-six prepositions are followed by the

These are ād/ādversus or ādfersum, antē, āpīd, circā or circum, circlier, cīs or citrā, contrā, ergā, ētrā, infrā, intēr, intrā, juciā, bb, pēnēs, pēr, post, pōnē, pratēr, propēt, sēcunējum, supīā, traps, ultrā; as,

Ad templum non æguæ Hallådis ibant,—to the temple. Virg. Adversus hostes, Against the enemy. Liv. Germani qui cis Rhēnum incolunt,—this side the Rhina Cæs. Quum tantum résideat intra miros máli. Cic. Principio rērum impērium pēnes rēges ērat. Just. Templum pōnam propter āguam. Virg. Inter āgendum. Id. Ante dōmandum. Id. Respecting the signification of some of the preceding prepositions see § 195, R. 5, etc.

REMARK 1. Cis is generally used with names of places; citra with other words also; as, Cis Taurum. Cic. Cis Pádum. Liv. Paucos cis menses. Plaut. Citra Vēliam. Cic. Citra sătielătem, Not to satiety. Col. Citra fătigătionem. Cels. Citra Trojāna tempora. Ovid.

REM. 2. Inter, signifying between, applies to two accusatives jointly, and sometimes to a single plural accusative; as, Inter me et Scipiönem. Cic. Inter nätos et pärentes. Id. Inter nos, Among ourselves. Id. Inter fulcārios, Among the seythe-makers. Cic. When it denotes time it signifies during, and more rarely at; as, Inter ipsum pugne tempus. Liv. Inter cœune. Cic.

REM. 3. Ante and post are commonly joined with concrete official titles, when used to indicate time, rather than with the corresponding abstract nouns; as, ante or post Cickrönem consulem, rather than ante or post consulatum Cick-

ronis.

(2) In and sub, denoting motion or tendency, are followed by the accusative; denoting situation, they are followed by the ablative; as,

Via dùcit in urbem, The way conducts into the city. Virg. Noster in te amor. Cic. Callimachi èpigrumma in Cleombrötum est—on or concerning Cleombrötus. Id. Exercitus sub jūgum missus est. The army was sent under the yoke. Cæs. Magna mei sub terras ibit imāgo. Virg. Mēdā in urbe, In the midst of the city. Ovid. In his fuil Ariovistus. Cæs. Bella sub Iliácis moenībus gērēre, To wage war under the Trojan walls. Ovid. Sub nocte silenti. Virg.

REM. 4. The most common significations of in, with the accusative, are, into, to, towards, until, for, against, about, concerning,—with the ablative, in, on, upon, among. In some instances, in and sub, denoting tendency, are followed by the ablative, and, denoting situation, by the accusative; as, In conspecting one audit virue. Pheal. Nationes que in amelitam propula Romaini, dittionemque essent. Id. Sub jügo dictator hostes misit. Liv. Hostes sub montem consediese. Case.

Rem. 5. In and sub, in different significations, denoting neither tendency nor situation, are followed sometimes by the accusative, and sometimes by the ablative; as, Amor crescit in horas. Ovid. Hostilem in modum. Cic. Quod in bono servo dici posset. Id. Sub ea conditione. Ter. Sub peena mortis. Suet.

Rem. 6. In expressions relating to time, sub, denoting at or in, usually takes the ablative; as, Sub adventu Rōmānōrum. Liv. Sub lūce. Ovid. Sub tempore. Lucan. Denoting near, about, just before or just after, it takes the accusative; as, Sub lūcem. Virg. Sub lūmina prima. Hor. Sub hoc hērus inquit. Id.

REM. 7. In is used with neuter adjectives in the accusative in forming adverbial phrases; as, In universam, In general. In totum, Wholly. So, in plenum, in incretum; in tantum; in quantum; in majus; in melius; in omnua, in all re-

spects, etc.

(3) Skpř, when denoting place or time, is followed by the accusative, and sometimes poetically by the ablative; but when it signifies on about, or concerning, it takes the ablative. With the accusative super signifies over, above, besides or in addition to; with numerals, more than; as,

Süper läbentem culmina tecti, Gliding over the top of the house. Virg. Süper tener modios. Liv. Süper morbum etiam fames affecti exercitum, Id. Süper tenero prosternit grämine corpus, He stretches his body on the tener grass. Virg. Mula süper Priämo rögitum süper Hectöre multu, .... concerning Priam, etc. Id.

REM. 8. The compound  $d\bar{s}$  super is found with the accusative, and insuper with the accusative and the ablative.

(4.)—Subter generally takes the accusative, but sometimes, in poetry, the ablative; as,

Subter terras, Under the earth. Liv. Subter densā testūdine. Virg.

(5.) Ctum is followed by either the accusative or the ablative; as, Ctum vols, Without your knowledge. Cie. Ctum patrem. Ter. Ctum matrem and Plaut. Ctum volis. Cass. Neque potest ctum me esse. Plaut. Ctum your men. Id. Its diminutive ctanculum is once followed by the accusative,

claneulum patres. Ter.

REM. 9. The adverbs versus or versum and usque are sometimes annexed to an accusative, principally of place, which depends on ad or in, and sometimes the preposition is omitted; as, Ad Oceanum versus proficisci. Cavs. Fagam ad se versum. Sall. In Galliam versus castra movere. Id.—Usque ad Namaniam. Cic. Usque in Pamphyliam. Id. Ad noten usque. Plaut.—Brundishim versus. Cic. Terminos usque Libye. Just. Usque Ennam proficit. Cic. Versus is always placed after the accusative.—Usque occurs more rarely with sub and trans with the accusative; as, Trans Alpes usque transfertur. Cic. Usque either ab or cz with the ablative; as, Ab septemtrione versus. Varr. A fundamento usque movisti mare. Plaut. Usque ex ultimā Spriā. Cic. Usque a puëritiā. Ter. Usque a Romālo. Cic. Usque a māne ad vesperum. Plaut.

REM. 10. Prepositions are often used without a noun depending upon them, out such noun may usually be supplied by the mind; as, Multis post annis,

i. e. post id tempus. Cic. Circum Concordiæ, scil. ædem. Sall.

REM. 11. The accusative, in many constructions, is supposed to depend on a preposition understood; as, Quid ōpus est plūrā? i. e. propter quid? why? i. q. cur? or quidre? Cic. So, Quid me ostentem? Id. But it is not easy, in every case, to say what preposition should be supplied. For the accusative without a preposition after neuter verbs, see § 232. For the accusative of limitation, see § 234, II.

### ACCUSATIVE OF TIME AND SPACE.

§ 236./ Nouns denoting duration of time, or extent of space, are put, after adjectives and verbs, in the accusative, and sometimes after verbs in the ablative; as,

Acc. Appius cacus multos annos fuit, Appius was blind mony years. Cic, Biduum Läödiceu fui. Id. Dies tötös de viridie disservut. Id. Te jum annum audienten Crätippum. Id.—Decreverunt intercaldrium quinque et quadrăginta dies longum. Id.—Quum âbessem ab Amāno Iter ianus diei. Id. Tres păteat celi spătium von amplius ulma. Virg. (Cf. § 256, R. 6.) A portu stădia centum at viginti prăcessimus. Cic.—Duas fossas quindecim pedes lâtus perduxit,—two ditches fifeen fect broad. Cas. Fossa quinos pedes alte. Il. Forâmian longa pi des tres sēmis. Cato. Orbem ôleârium crassum digitos sex fâctto. Id.—Ant. Vicit annis undetriginta. Suet. Quătuordecim amis exzilum tolleāvit. Tac. Trigiata annis xicit Panetius. Cic.—Exercitus Rômânus tridui timēre abfuit do anme Tānai. Tac. Æscălāpii templum quinque millibus passuum distans. Liv.

Note 1. The ablative denoting extent of time and space is rurely used by Cicero, and less frequently than the accusative by other writers.

Note 2. The accusative denoting extent of space sometimes follows the abverbs lunge, alte, etc.; as, Campestris lieus alte duos pédes et sémissem infodiendus est. Colum. Vercingétorix lieum castris déligit ab Avarico lunge millia passaum sédécim. Cas.

Note 3. (a.) Old, in reference to the time which a person has lived, is expressed in Latin by nātus, with an accusative of the time; as, Dicessit Alexander mensem āmam, annos tres et trāginta nātus. Just. (b.) A person's age may also be expressed without nātus by a genitive of the time closely connected with his name, according to § 211, R. 6; as, Alexander annārum trium et trīginta dicessit. (c.) Older or pumper than a certain age is expressed by prefixing to the accusative or genitive of the definite age the ad-

verbs plus or minus, or the adjectives mūjor or minor, either with or without quam. See § 256, R. 6 and 7.—Sometimes, also, the ablative depends on the comparative; as, Minor riginti quinque annis nātus. Nep. Minor trīginta annis nātus. Cic. Biennio quam nos major. Id. Cf. § 256, R. 16. (1.)

REMARK 1. Nouns denoting time or space, used to limit other nouns, are put in the genitive or ablative. See § 211, R. 6.

REM 2. A term of time not yet completed may be expressed by an ordinal number; as, Nos vicestinum jam diem pätinur hebeseere äciem hörum auctöritätis. Cic. Pänico bello duodecimum annum Itälia ürebätur. Liv. Hence in the passive, Nunc tertia viritur ætas. Ovid.

REM. 3. The accusative or ablative of space is sometimes omitted, while a genitive depending on it remains; as, Custra quæ ābērant bidni, scil. spātium or spātio. Cic.

REM. 4. To denote a place by its distance from another, the ablative is commonly used; as, Millibus passuum sex a Cosáris castris considit. Cæs.; but sometimes the accusative; as, Tria pressuum millia ab ipsā uvbe castra pōsuit. Liv. The only words used for this purpose in the ablative alone are spātio and intervallo; as, Quindictin ferme millium spātio castra ab Tarento pōsuit. Id.

NOTE 4. For abhine and a cardinal number, with the accusative or ablative of past time, see § 253, R. 2. For the ablative denoting difference of time or space, see § 256, R. 16.

REM. 5. A preposition is sometimes expressed before an accusative of time or space, but it generally modifies the meaning; as, Quem per decem annos dinimus, ... during ten years. Cic.

Rem. 6. When the place from which the distance is reckoned is not mentioned, ab is sometimes placed before the ablative of distance, as if this depended on the preposition; as, A millibus passaum duöbus castra pösuērunt, Two miles from the place, or, Two miles off. Cas.

REM. 7. An accusative of weight also occurs when expressed by libram or libras in connection with pondo. Cf. § 211, R. 6. (4.)

## ACCUSATIVE OF PLACE.

§ 237. After verbs expressing or implying motion, the name of the town in which the motion ends is put in the accusative without a preposition; as,

Rēgālus Carthāginem rēdāt, Regulus returned to Carthage. Cic. Cāpnam flectit tier, He turus his course to Capna. Liv. Calpurnius Rōmam prōficiscitus. Sall. Rōmam ērat nunciātum. Cic.

REMARK 1. The accusative, in like manner, is used after iter with sum, hābeo, etc.; as, Her est mihi Lānūvinm. Cic. Caesārem iter hābēre Cāpnam. Id. And even after sum alone; as, Omnia illa mānicīpia, qua sunt a Vibōne Brundisium. Cic. So with a verbal noun; as, Adrentus Rōmam. Liv. Rēdītus Rōmam. Civ.

REM. 2. (a.) The preposition to be supplied is in, denoting to or into, which sometimes expressed; as, In Ephésum àbii. Plant. Ad, before the name of a town, denotes direction towards it; as, lev dirigère ad Matinam. Cic.; and also its vicinity; as, Adolescentilus miles profectus sum ad Capuam; i. e. in castra ad Capuam. 1d. So, Leelius cum classe ad Brandisiam vénit. Cæs. Cæsar ad Genéram pervénit. 1d. Quam égo ad Heracleam accèdérem. Cic.

(b.) When urbs, oppidum, löcus, etc., follow the names of towns as appositions, they generally take a preposition; as, Dēmārātus se contailt Tarquinios, in urbem Ετνάτιε βιστιαίτως Ad Cirtam oppidum ther constituant. Sall—So also when the name of the town is qualified by an adjective; as, Magnum

iter ad doctas proficisci cogor Athenas. Prop. But the poets and later prose writers sometimes omit the preposition; as, Ovid, Her. 2, 83.

REM. 3. Instead of the accusative, a dative is sometimes, though rarely, used; as, Carthagini nuncios mittam. Hor. Cf. § 225, IV. and R. 2.

REM. 4. Domus in both numbers, and rus in the singular, are put in the accusative, like names of towns; as,

Ite domum, Go home. Virg. Galli domos abierant,-had gone home. Liv. Rus ibo. I will go into the country. Ter.

Note. (a.) When domus is limited by a genitive or a possessive adjective pronoun, it sometimes takes a preposition: with other adjectives, the preposi-tion is generally expressed; as, Non introco in nostram domum. Plaut. Venisse todi is generally expressed; as, Non incree in nostrain dollain. I adu. Verissia in domum Lecca. Cic. Ad eam domum profect sunt. Id. In domos süperas scandere eüra fuit. Ovid. Barely, also, when not limited; as, Söcrätes philosophium in domos introducit. Cic. So, liven suum. App., or ad liven suum. Cic. Caricas in Albense rus inferre. Plin. Quum in sua rüra vénérunt. Cic. With the possessor's name in the genitive, either domum or in domum is used; as, Pompônii dômum vēnisse. Cic. In dômum Mælii tēla infēruntur. Liv.

(b.) Dimus is sometimes used in the accusative after a verbal noun; as, Domum reditionis spe sublata. Cas. So, Itio domum. Cic. Concursus domum. Cæs. Cf. R. 1.

REM. 5. (a.) Before the names of countries and of all other places in which the motion ends, except those of towns, and dómus and rus, the preposition is commonly used; as, Ex Asia transis in Europam. Curt. Te in Epirum venisse gaudeo. Cic. But it is sometimes omitted; as, Deveniunt speluncam. Virg. Dēvēnēre locos. Id. Tumulum antiquæ Cēreris sedemque sacrātam vēnīmus. Id. This Cerropios portus. Ovid. So, also, before names of countries especially those ending in us; as, Lygydus, Bospórus, Chersónésus, Epirus, Péloponnésus, etc. So, also, Illyricum profectus. Cas. Macedonium percent. Liv. Africam transitūrus. Id. Šo, Tacitus construes even names of natious, when used, as they often are, for those of countries; as, Ductus inde Cangos exercitus. Iberos ad patrium regnum pervādit. So, Virgil, Nos ibimus Afros .- Pliny has, Insulas Rubri Maris nāvigant.

(b.) Before the names of small islands the preposition is frequently omitted; ns, Pausăniam cum classe Cyprum mīsērunt. Nep.: but rarely before the names of the larger islands; as, Sardinia, Britannia, Crēta, Eubwa, Sicilia.

(c.) Before accusatives of any words denoting locality after verbs of motion, the poets omit the preposition; as, Italiam—Lāvīniāque vēnit litora. Virg.— The old accusative foras is used, like names of towns, to denote the place whither, while foris denotes the place where; as, Vade foras. Mart. Exit foras. Plaut.

#### ACCUSATIVE AFTER ADJECTIVES, ADVERBS, AND INTERJECTIONS.

§ 238. 1. (a.) The adjectives propior and proximus, with their adverbs propius and proxime, like their primitive prope, are often joined with the accusative; as,

Ipse propior montem suos collocat. Sall. Crassus proximus mare Oceanum hièmārat. Cæs.—Libyes propius mare Africum agitābant. Sall. Proxime His-pāniam Mauri sunt. Id.

(b.) The adverbs pridie and postridie are also often followed by the accusative; as, Pridie eum diem. Cic. Pridie idus. Id. Postridie ludos. Id.—(c.) An accusative sometimes follows intus and cominus; as, Intus domum. Plaut. Agrestes cominus ire sues, scil. in. Prop.

REMARK 1. The accusative with pridie and postridie is by some referred to onte and post understood. For the genitive after these words, see § 212, R. 4, N. 6.—Respecting versus, usque, exadversus (-um) and sécus with the accusative, see § 195, R. 3: and § 235, R. 3.

Rem. 2. The adverb bene, by the elipsis of välere jäbeo, is sometimes followed by the accusative in forms of drinking health; as, Bene vos, bene nos, bene to, bene nostram etiam Stephänium! Plant. Bene Messalam, a health to Messala. Tibull. It is also construed with the dative. See § 228, 1.

2. In exclamations, the noun or pronoun which marks the object of the feeling is put in the accusative either with or without the interjections, O! ah! heu! eheu! ecce! en! hem! pro! or væ!as,

En quatuor aras! ecce duas thi Daphni! Behold four altars! lo, two for thee, Daphnis! Virg. Eccum! eccos! eccellum! for ecce eum! ecce eos! ecce illum! Plaut. O præclarum custôdem! Cic. Heu me infelicen! Ter. Pro Deâm hôminumque fidem! Cic. Ah me, me! Catull. Eheu me misörum! Ter. Hem astatias! Id. Vie te! Plaut. Ve me! Sen. Misèram me! Ter. Hôminem grävem et civem ēgrējum! Cic. Cf. § 228, 3.

Note. The accusative after interjections is supposed to depend on some verb of emotion to be supplied.

### SUBJECT-ACCUSATIVE.

§ 239. The subject of the infinitive mood is put in the accusative; as,

Möleste Pompeium id ferre constābat, That Pompey took that ill, was evident. Cic. Eos hoc nomine appellāri fas est. Id. Miror te ad me nihil scribēre, I wonder that you do not write to me. Cn. Mag. in Cic. Campos jūbet esse pātentes. Virg.

Note 1. In historical writing the present infinitive has sometimes its subject in the nominative. Cf. § 209, R. 5.

REMARK 1. The subject of the infinitive is omitted when it precedes in the genitive or dative case; as, Lst addiescentis mājores nātu vērēri, scil. cum. Cic. Expēdit bōna esse vōbis, scil. vos. Ter.; and rarely when it precedes in the accusative; as, La pōpalus lutāri et mērito dicēre fiēri; and also when its place is supplied by a possessive pronoun expressed or understood; as, Non fut consilium (meum)—servilbus officiis intentum addiem docere (scil. me). Sall.

Rem. 2. A substantive pronoun is also sometimes omitted before the infinitive, when it is the subject of the preceding verb; as, Pollicitus sum suscepturum (esse), scil. me, I promised (that I) would undertake. Ter. Sed reddere posse n&gåbat, scil. se. Virg.

REM. 3. The subject of the infinitive is often omitted, when it is a general word for person or thing; as, Est àliud îrācundum esse, àliud îrātum, scil. hôminem. Cic. See § 269, R. 1.

REM. 4. The subject-accusative, like the nominative, is often wanting. See § 269, R. 3. The subject of the infinitive may be an infinitive or a clause. See § 269, R. 3.

Note 2. For the verbs after which the subject-accusative with the infinitive is used, see § 272. For the accusative in the predicate after infinitives neuter and passive, see § 210.

### VOCATIVE.

§ 240. The vocative is used, either with or without an interjection, in addressing a person or thing.

REMARK 1. The interjections O, heu, and pro (proh), also ah, au (hab), them, tho, eholum, eia (heia), hem, heus, hui, io, and ohe, are followed by the vocative; as,

O formose puer! O beautiful boy! Virg. Heu virgo! Id. Pro sancte Jüpiter! Cic. Ah stutte! Ter. Heus Sgre! Id. Ohe übelle! Mart. Ehodum böne vir. Ter.—Urbem, mi Rüfe, cole. Cic. Quinctili Vare, légiones redde. Suet. Quo moriture rais? Hor. Macte virité esto. Cic.

REM. 2. The vocative is sometimes omitted, while a genitive depending upon it remains; as, O misere sortis! scil. homines. Lucan.

Note. The vocative forms no part of a proposition, but serves to designate the person to whom the proposition is addressed.

### ABLATIVE.

The ablative denotes certain relations of nouns and pronouns, all of which are expressed in English by means of prepositions. In Latin this case is sometimes accompanied by a preposition, and sometimes stands alone. Cf. § 37,  $\pm$ 00.

## ABLATIVE AFTER PREPOSITIONS.

§ 241. Eleven prepositions are followed by the ablative.

These are ā, (or-āb, abs), absquĕ, dē; cōram, pălam, cum, ex, (ē); sĭnĕ, tĕnŭs, prō, and præ; as,

Ab illo tempore, From that time. Liv. A scribendo, From writing. Cic. Cum exercita, With the army. Sall. Certis de causis, For certain reasons. Cic. Ex fuga, From flight. Id. Pálam pópalo. Liv. Sine libbre. Cic. Cápalo témus. Virg. Cantábit vácuus córam látrône viátor. Juv. cf. § 195, 5.

Note. Of the prepositions followed by the ablative, five signify removal or separation, viz.  $\tilde{a}$  ( $\tilde{a}b$  or abs),  $d\tilde{e}$ ,  $\tilde{e}$  (or ex),  $absqu\tilde{e}$  and  $sin\tilde{e}$ .

REMARK 1. Tēnus is always placed after its case. It sometimes takes the genlitive plural. See § 221, III.—Cum is always appended to the ablative of the personal pronouns me, te, se, nobis, and vöbis, and commonly to the ablatives of the relative pronoun, quo, quā, quibus, and qui. Ct. § 133, 4, and § 136, R. 1.

Rem. 2. The adverbs proced and simul are sometimes used with an ablative, which depends on the prepositions a or ab, and cum understood; as, Procud mair, Far from the sea. Liv. Simul nobis habitat. Ovid. Procud dibio. Suct. The prepositions are frequently expressed; as, Procud a terrā. Cic. Procud a patriā. Virg. Tēcum simul. Plaut. Vöbiscum simul. Cic.—So, rarely, eque. Qui me in terrā arque fortinātus ērit. Plaut. Cl. Noci eque omnia tēcum. Id.

REM. 3. Some of the above prepositions, like those followed by the accusations, are occasionally used without a noun expressed; as, Quum coram samus. Cic. Cum frare an sine. 1d. Cf. § 235, R. 10.

REM. 4. The ablative follows also the propositions in and sub, when they answer to the question 'where?' süper, when it signifies 'on' or 'concerning'; and sometimes clam and subter. Cf. § 235, (2)—(5.)

REM. 5. In is generally joined with the ablative after verbs of placing, as, pono, loco, colloco, státuo, constituo, and consido; as, Et side tübenles artus i litore ponunt. Virg.—So, also, after verbs signifying to have, hold, or regura';

as, hābeo, dūco, nūmēro, etc.—After verbs of assembling, concealing, and including, in is followed by either the accusative or the ablative.—After dēf igo, inserbo, insculpo, incido, and insero, in is usually joined with the ablative.

§ 242. Many verbs compounded with \(\tilde{a}b\),  $d\tilde{e}$ , ex, and s\(\tilde{u}per\), are followed by an ablative depending upon the preposition; as,

Abesse urbe, To be absent from the city. Cic. Abire sēdibus, To depart from their habitations. Tac. Ut se mālēdictis non abstineant. Cic. Ditrūdent nāves scópālo, They push the ships from the rock. Virg. Nāvi sēgressus est. Nep. Excēdēre finibus. Liv. Casar prælio sūpersēdēre stātut. Cass. Tribūto ac dēlectu sūpersessum est. Cic. So the adjective extorris; as, Extorris patriā, dōmo. Sall. And so the verbal ēruptio; as, Mūtinā ēruptio. Cic.

REMARK 1. The preposition is often repeated, or one of similar signification is used; as, Dētrāhēre de tuā fāmā numquam cogitāvi. Cic. Ex oculis ābiērunt. Liv. Exīre a patriā. Cic. Exīre de viāt. 1d. Cf. § 224, R. 4.

REM. 2. These compound verbs are often used without a noun; but, in many cases, it may be supplied by the mind; as, Equites degressi ad pedes, but. Equit. Cio.

REM. 3. Some verbs compounded with ab, de, and ee, instead of the ablative, are sometimes followed by the dative. See § 224, R. 1 and 2. Some compounds, also, of neuter verbs, occur with the accusative. See § 235, R. 1.

# ABLATIVE AFTER CERTAIN NOUNS, ADJECTIVES, AND VERBS.

§ 243. Opus and ūsus, signifying need, usually take the ablative of the thing needed; as,

Auctöritäte tuā nöbis öpus est, We need your authority. Cic. Nunc animis öpus, nunc pectore firmo. Virg. Näres, quibus considi üsus non esset, Ships, for which the consul had no occasion. Liv. Nunc vīrībus üsus, nunc mānībus rāpidis. Virg.

REMARK 1. (a.) Opus and issus are sometimes followed by the ablative of a perfect participle; as, Mātūrāto ōpus est, There is need of haste. Liv. Usus facto est mihi. Ter. Ubi summus impērādro non ādest ad exercitum, citius, quod non facto est issus, fit, quom quod facto est ōpus. Plaut. After ōpus, a noun is sometimes expressed with the participle; as, Opus fiut Hirtic convento,—of meeting, or, to meet, § 274, R. 5. Cic. Opus sibi esse domino ējus invento. Liv.—or a supine is used; as, Ita dictu ōpus est, It is necessary to say, I must say. Ter.—Instead of the ablative with opus est, an infinitive, either alone or with a subject accusative, or ut with a subjunctive clause, sometimes occurs; as, Opus est te ānimo valiere. Cic. Mihi ōpus est, ut livem. Id.

(b.) Opus and ūsus, though nouns, are seldom limited by the genitive. In a few passages they are construed with the accusative. See § 211, R. 11.

Rem. 2. Opus is sometimes the subject and sometimes the predicate of est, usus, which seldom occurs except in ante-classic poets, is, with only rare exceptions, the subject only. The person to whom the thing is needful is put in the dative; (§ 225.) With opus the thing needed may either be the subject of the verb in the nominative or accusative, or follow it in the ablative: as, Dux nobis opus est. Cic. Verves multa sibi opus esse aicbut. Id.; or, Düce nobis opus est. The former construction is most common with neuter adjectives and pronouns; as, Quod non opus est, asse corum est. Cato apud Sen.—In the predicate opus and usus are commonly translated 'needful' or 'necessary.' Cf. § 210. R. 5.

- Note. For the ablative of character, quality, etc., limiting a noun, see § 211, R. 6.

§ 244. Dignus, endignus, contentus, præditus, and frētus, are followed by the ablative of the object; as,

Dignus laude, Worthy of praise. Hor. Vox populi majestate indigna, A speech unbecoming the dignity of the people. Cass. Bestia eo contenta non quarunt amplius. Cic. Homo seèlere pracditus. Id. Plérique ingènio fréti. Id.—So, Æquum est me atque illo. Plaut.

REMARK 1. The adverb digne, in one passage, takes the ablative; Peccett iter nestrum crūce dignius. Hor.—Dignor, also, both as the passive of the obsolete digno, and as a deponent verb, is followed by an ablative of the thing. As a deponent it takes also an accusative of the person; as, Hund équidem till me hönfor dignor. Ving.—Pass. Qui tāli hönfor dignāti sunt. Cic. Conjūgio, Anchisa, Venēris dignātie siperbo. Virg.—Sometimes as a deponent, instead of the ablative of the thing, it is followed by an infinitive clause; as, Nom ēgo grammātīcas ambire tribus et pulpīta dignor. Hor. And both dignor and dēdignor are followed by two accusatives, one of the object the other of the predicate. See § 230, R. 2.

REM. 2. (a.) Dignus and indignus are sometimes followed by the genitive, as, Sussipe containmen dignissiman two virtuits. Cic. Indignus avorum. Virg.; and dignus sometimes takes a neuter pronoun or adjective in the accusative; as, Non me censes scire quid dignus siem? Plant. Frêtus is in Livy construed with the dative. Cf. 4, 222, R. 6, (b.).

(b) Instead of an ablative, dignus and indignus often take an infinitive, especially in the passive; as, Erat dignus àmāri. Virg.; or a subjunctive clause, with qui or ut; as, Dignus qui impèret. Cic. Non sum dignus, ut figam pālum in pārietem. Plant.; or the supine in u; as, Dignu atque indignu relatur recept frams. Virg. Contentus is likewise joined with the infinitive; as, Non kace arts contenta paternas ēdidicisse fuit. Ovid.—So, Naves pontum irrumpère frètae. Stat.

§ 245. I. Utor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, and their compounds are followed by the ablative; as,

Ad quem tum Jimo supplex his vöchus saa est,—addressed these words. Virg. Frui võluptäte, To enjoy pleasure. Cic. Fangtur officio, He performs his duty. Id. Oppido potiti sunt. Liv. Vesettur aurā. Virg. His rebus perfruor. Cic. Legatus abatā. Id. Dijmeti impērio. Liv. Grāvi opēre perfungtmur. Cic. O tandem inagnis pitlogi drjunte pērfelis. Virg.

The compounds are abūtor, deūtor, perfruor, defungor, and perfungor.

NOTE. Utor may take a second ablative, as an apposition or a predicate, like the predicate accusative, (§ 230, R. 2), and may then be translated by the verb to hare; as, Ille facili me ütetur patre, He shall have in me an indulgent father. Ter.

REMARK. In early writers these verbs sometimes take an accusative; as, Quam rem médici âtuntur. Varr. Ingénium frui. Ter. Datâmes milutâre muns fungens. Nep. Gentem âliquam urbem nostram pôtituram pûtem. Cic. Sacras lauros rescar. Tibull. In prôlògis scribendis ôpëram âbūtitur. Ter.—Pôtior is, also, found with the genitive. See § 220, 4.

II. 1. Nitor, innitor, fido and confido, may be followed by the ablative without a preposition; as, Hastā innixus. Liv. Fidore cursu. Ovid. Natūrā loci confidebant. Cas.

Misceo with its compounds takes, with the accusative of the object, the
ablative of the thing mingled with; as, Miscère pàbula sale. Coll. Aquas nectare. Oyld. Ažr multo călôre admixtus. Cic.

Assuesco, assuefácio, consuesco, insuesco, and sometimes acquiesco, take
either the dative or the ablative of the thing; as, Ares sanguine et præda assuetas. Hor. Nullo officio aut disciplina assuefactus. Cæs. Cf. § 224.

4. Vivo and čpūlor, 'to live or feast upon,' are followed by the ablative; as, Dăpibus čpūlāmur opimis. Virg. Lacte atque pecore vivunt. Cæs.

5. Sto signifying 'to be filled or covered with,' and also when signifying 'to cost,' is followed by the ablative without a preposition; when signifying 'to persevere in, stick to, abide by,' to rest or be fixed on,' it is followed by the ablative either with or without in; as, Jam pulvère calum ståre rident. Virg.—Multo sanguine ac vulneribus ea Penis victoria ståtit. Liv. Ståre conditionibus. Cic. Omnis in Ascanio stat cara parentis. Virg.—Consto, 'to consist of' or 'to rest upon,' is followed by the ablative either alone or with ex, de, or in; as, Constat måteries solido corpore. Luc. Homo ex antone constat et corpore. Cic.

REMARK 1. Fido, confido, misceo, admisceo, permisceo, and assuesco often take the dative.

Rem. 2. When a preposition is expressed after the above verbs, sto, fido, confido, nilor, innilor, and assuesco take in or ad; acquiesco, in; and misceo with its compounds, cum.

§ 246. Perfect participles denoting origin are often followed by the ablative of the source, without a preposition.

Such are nātus, prognātus, sātus, creātus, crētus, ēdītus, genītus, genērātus, ortus; to which may be added briundus, descended from.

Thus, Năte deâ! O son of a goldess! Virg. Tantălo prōgnātus, Descended from Tantalus. Cic. Sătus Nêredde, Sprung from a Nereid. Ovid. Creătus rege. 1d. Alcânôre crêti. Virg. Elute regibus. Hor. Dis gênite. Virg. Argôl-to gênêrātus Alčmône. Ovid. Ortus nullis mājôribus. Hor. Cælesti sēmine ôriumāl. Lucr.

REMARK 1. The preposition is also rarely omitted after the verbs creo, généro, and nascor; as, Ut patre certo nascérére. Cic. Fortes creantur fortibus. Hor.

REM. 2. After participles denoting origin, the preposition ex or de is usually joined to the name of the mother; and in a few passages ex or ab is joined to the name of the father; as, Prognati ab Dite patre. Cas. In speaking of one's ancestors ab is frequently used; as, Ptrosyme Belgas esse ortos a Germanis. Id.

Rem. 3. Origin from a place or country is generally expressed by a patrial adjective; as, Thrasybūlus Athēniensis, Thrasybūlus of Athēns. Livy often uses ab; as, Turms Herdonius ab Ariciā. Cæsur prefers the ablative alone; as, Ch. Magius Cremonā; and in this manner is expressed the tribe to which a person belongs; as, Ch. Verres Romiliā,—of the Romilian tribe.

# ABLATIVE OF CAUSE, ETC.

§ 247. Nouns denoting the cause, manner, means, and instrument, after adjectives and verbs, are put in the ablative without a preposition.

Note. The English prepositions with the ablative of cause, manner, means, and instrument are by, with, in, etc.

1. The cause. (1.) Adjectives which have a passive signification, as denoting a state or condition produced by some external cause, may take such cause in the ablative; as,

Campāni fuërunt sūperbi bonttāte agrōrum. Cic. Animal pābālo lætum. Sen. Prælio fessi lassique, Weary and faint with the battle. Sall. Homines ægri grāvi morbo. Cic.

(2.) Neuter verbs expressing an action, state or feeling of the subject originating in some external cause, may take that cause in the ablative; as,

Interiit fame, He perished with hunger. Laude aliena dolet. Cic. Lator tuā dignītāte. Id. Gaude tuo bono. Id. Suā victoriā gloriāri. Cæs. Aquilonibus laborant querceta. Hor .- So with bene est and the dative; as, Mihi bene erat non piscibus urbe petitis, sed pullo atque hædo. Hor. Ubi illi bene sit ligno, ăqua călida, cibo, vestimentis, etc. Plaut.

Note 1. After such adjectives and neuter verbs, a preposition with its case often supplies the place of the simple ablative.

Note 2. In exclamations of encouragement or approbation, the defective adjective macte, macti, either with or without the imperative of esse (esto, este. estote.) is joined with an ablative of cause, especially with virtute.

Note 3. After neuter verbs and adjectives denoting emotions, especially those of care, grief, and sorrow, the accusative vicem, with a genitive or a possessive pronoun, is used, instead of the ablative rice, to signify 'for' or 'on account of'; as, Remittimus hoc tibi, ne nostram vicem irascaris, That you may not be angry on our account. Liv. Tuam vicem sape doleo, quod, etc. Cic. Suam vicem măgis anxius, quam ejus, cui auxilium ab se petebatur. Liv.

REMARK 1. When the cause is a voluntary agent, it is put in the accusative with the preposition ob, propter, or per; as, Non est aguum me propter vos decipi. Ter. These prepositions, and a, or ab, de, e or ex, and præ, are also sometimes used when the cause is not a voluntary agent; as, Ob adulterium cæsi. Virg. Nec lóqui præ mærōre pôtuit. Cic.

REM. 2. (a.) After active verbs, the cause, unless expressed by an ablative in u from substantives having no other case; as, Jussu, rogātu and admonttu, is seldom expressed by the simple ablative, but either by a preposition, or by causā, gratiā, ergo, etc., with a genitive; as, Lēgibus propter metum pāret. Cic. Ne ob eam rem ipsos dēspīcēret. Id. Dōnāri virtūtis ergo. Id. Ši hoc Cic. No ob cam rem upon despiceret. Id. Donari virtuits ergo. Id. si nov hönöris mei causă susceptiris. Id. But with causă, etc., the adjective pronoun is commonly used for the corresponding substantive pronoun; as, Te âbesse mea causă, môleste fêro. Cic. Ci. § 211, R. 3, (b.)

(b.) When the cause is a state of feeling, a circumlocution is often used with a perfect participle of some verb signifying 'to induce'; as, Câpiddâde ductus,

inductus, incitatus, incensus, inflammātus, impulsus, motus, captus, etc. Mihi bene-volentiā ductus trībucbat omnia. Cic. Livy frequently uses ab in this sense;

as, Ab irā, a spe, ab odio, from anger, hope, hatred.

2. The manner. Cum is regularly joined with the ablative of manner, when expressed simply by a noun, not modified by any other word; and also when an adjective is joined with the noun, provided an additional circumstance, and not merely an essential character of the action, is to be expressed. Thus:

Cum voluptāte aliquem audire. Verres Lampsacum venit cum magnā calamitate civitatis. Cic. Hence also when the connection between the subject and the noun denoting the attribute is only external; as, Procedere cum veste purpurea: in distinction from Nudis pedibus incedere; Aperto capite sedere, etc.,

which express circumstances or attributes essential to the subject.

But modus, rátio, mos, ritus, etc., signifying manner, never take cum, and it is omitted in some expressions with other substantives; as, Hoc mödo scripsi; Constituerunt qua ratione agérétue; More bestárum vigári; Latrônum ritu vicére; Equo animo fero; Maxima fide amicitias coluit. Summa equitate res constituit; Viam incredibili celeritate confecit; Librum magna cura diligentiaque scripsit; the action of the verb being intimately connected with the circumstance expressed by the ablative. So in some expressions with substantives alone; as, Silentio praterire or făcere ăliquid; Lêge ăgere; Jure and injuria făcere; Magistratus vitio creatus; Recte et ordine fit.

REM. 3. The manner is also sometimes denoted by de or ex with the ablative; as, De or ex industria, On purpose. Liv. Ex integro, Anew. Quint.

3. The means and instrument. An ablative is joined with verbs of every kind, and also with adjectives of a passive signification, to express the means or instrument; as,

Amicos observantia, rem parsimonia rétinuil, He retained his friends by attention, his property by frugality. Cic. Auro ostroque décôri. Virg. Ægrescit médendo. Id. Cornibus tauri, apri dentibus, morsu leônes se talantur. Cic. Cœus est virgis. Id. Trabs saucia securi. Ovid. For the ablative of the means after verbs of filling, etc., see § 249, I.

Rem. 4. When the means is a person, it is seldom expressed by the simple ablative, but either by per, or by the ablative \$\lambda p \tilde{p} e \tilde{n}\$ with a genitive or a possessive pronoun; as, \$me\tilde{a}\$, \$ta\tilde{a}\$, \$sa\tilde{a}\$, \$\lambda p \tilde{e} e \tilde{q}\$, with a genitive or a possessive pronoun; as, \$me\tilde{a}\$, \$ta\tilde{a}\$, \$va\tilde{a}\$, \$\lambda p \tilde{e} e \tilde{q}\$, \$va\tilde{e}\$, \$va\ti

REM. 5. The material instrument is always expressed by the ablative without a preposition; as, Conficere cervum săgiltis; glâdio âliquem vulnerăre; trā-jicere pectus ferro.

- § 248. The ablative is used with passive verbs to denote the means or agent by which any thing is effected, and which in the active voice is expressed by the nominative. This ablative is used either with ab or without it, according as it is a person or a thing.
- I. The roluntary agent of a verb in the passive voice is put in the ablative with a or ab; as,
- (In the active voice,) Clodius me diligit, Clodius loves me (Cic.); (in the passive,) A Clodiu diligor, I am loved by Clodius. Laudatur ab his, culpatur ab illis. Hor.
- REMARK 1. (1.) The general word for persons, after verbs in the passive voice, is often understood; as, Probitas lauditur, seil. ab höminbus. Juv. So after the passive of neutr verbs; as, Discurritur. Virg. Toto certatum est corpore regmi. Id. Cf. § 141, R. 2.
- (2.) The agent is likewise often understood, when it is the same as the subject of the verb, and the expression is then equivalent to the active voice with a reflexive pronoun, or to the middle voice in Greek; as, Quum omnes in omni genera, scilerum volutentur, scil. a se. Cic.
- Rem. 2.—Neuter verbs, also, are sometimes followed by an ablative of the voluntary agent with a or ab; as,
- M. Marcellus pěriit ab Annibăle, M. Marcellus was killed by Hannibal. Plin. Ne vir ab hoste cădut. Ovid.
- Rem. 3. The preposition is sometimes omitted; as, Nec conjuge captus. Ovid. Colitur limigéra turba. Id. Péreat meis excisus Argivis. Hor.

For the dative of the agent after verbs in the passive voice, and participles  $\ln dus$ , see § 225, II. and III.

II. The involuntary agent of a verb in the passive voice, or of a neuter verb, is put in the ablative without a preposition, as the cause, means, or instrument; as, Maximo dòlore conficior. Cic. Frangi cupiditate. Id. Æàcidæ têlo jácet Hector. Virg.

Note. The involuntary agent is sometimes personified, and takes a or ab; as, A völuptätibus d'sèri. Cic. A natūrā ditum hömini vivendi cerricalum. Id. Vinci a völuptāte Id. Victus a läböre. Id.

§ 249. I. A noun denoting the means, by which the action of a verb is herformed, is put in the ablative after verbs signifying to affect in any way, to fill, furnish, load, array, equip, endow, adorn, reward, enrich, and many others.

REMARK 1. This rule includes such verbs as aff trio, aspergo, conspergo, inspergo, respergo, compleo, expleo, impleo, oppleo, repleo, suppleo, chimido, farcio, réfercio, sătio, exacto, stino, estro, stipo, constito, stipo, constito, oppleo, pedro, asgeo, induo, estio, armo, orac, circumdo, circumfundo, macto, löcupleto, instruo, imbuo, döno, impertio, rémûnéror, honesto, koño e, etc.; as.

Terrore implitur Africa, Africa is filled with terror. Sil. Instrucire epulis mensus, They furnished the tables with food. Ovid. Ut jus aintumu his opinionibus imbias, That you should imbue his mind with these sentiments. Cic. Naces onerout auro, They load the ships with gold. Virg. Canada alaria doins, He heaps the altars with gits. Id. Terra se gramine cesti, The earth clothes itself with grass. Id. Mollibus ornabut cornau sertis. Id. Multo cibo et polionompleti. Cic. Libros pubrilibus fibulis réfereire. Id. Silicir dielectatione non possum. Id. Homines sittériat honoribus. Id. Senectus stipita stàdiis fuencialis. Id. Me tunto honore hônestas. Plant. Equis African bicuplâtăvi. Colum. Silülum tuum nullă me novă voluptăte afficit. Cic. Terram nox obruit umbris. Lucr.

REM. 2. Several verbs denoting to fill, instead of the ablative, sometimes take a genitive. See § 220, 3.

Rem. 3. The active verbs induo, dono, impertio, aspergo, inspergo, circumdo, and circumfundo, instead of the ablative of the thing with the accusative of the person, sometimes take an accusative of the thing, and a dative of the person; as, Cui quana Diàmira timicam indusset. Cic. Donare minera civibus, in the earliest writers dono, like condono, has sometimes two accusatives or an accusative of the person with the infinitive.

It. Anoun denoting that in accordance with which any thing is, or is dond, is often put in the ablative without a preposition; as,

Nostro nore, According to our custom. Cic. Instituto suo Cesar cópias suas celuxit, According to his practice. Cass. Id factum constlio meo,—by my advice. Ter. Pácem field his conditionibus,—on these conditions. Nep.

Note. The prepositions de, ex, pro, and secundum are often expressed with such nonns; us, Neque est facturus quidquam visi de meo constito. Cic. Exconsuëtudine aliquid f ácère. Plin. Ep. Décet quidquid ágas, ågére pro viribus. Cic. Sécundum naturam vieire. Id.

III The ablative denoting accompaniment, is usually joined with cum; as,

Văgămur ēgentes cum conjūgibus et lībēris, Needy, we wander with our wives and children. Cic. Supe admīrāri soleo cum hoc C. Lælio. Id. Jūlium cum his ad te lītēris mīsi. Id. Ingressus est cum glādio. Id. Itômam vēni cum lebri. Cum occāsu solis copius ēdūcēre,—as soon as the sun set.

REMARK. But cum is sometimes omitted before words denoting military and inval forces, when limited by an adjective; as, Ad castra Cossaris omnibus copiis contendrunt. Cass. Inde table exercitu projectus. Liv. Edden decem naxibus C. Furius vēnāt. Liv. And sometimes in military language cum is omitted, when accompanying circumstances are mentioned, and not persons; as, Custra clāmôre ineādant.

§ 250. 1. A noun, adjective, or verb, may be followed by the ablative, denoting in what respect their signification is taken; as,

Piètâte filius, consiliis părens, În affection a son, în counsel a parent. Cic. Rēpes nomine măpis quam império, Kings în name rather than în authority. Nep. Oppidum nomine Bibrac. Ceas.—Jüre pêritus, Skilled în law. Cic. Anzius onimo, Anxious în mind. Tac. Pédibus ager, Lame în his feet. Sall. Crine rüber, mojer ore. Mart. Fronte ketus. Tac. Mājor niku. Cic. Pradentii non inférior, üsu vêro êtiam săpêrior. Îd. Maximus nătu. Liv.—Animo augi, To be troubled în mind. Cic. Contrêmisco têtă mente et omnibus artibus, I am agitated în my whole mind and în every limb. 1d. Captus mente, Affected în mind, i. c. deprived of reason. Îd. Altêro ôcâb câpitur. Liv. Ingênii laude floruit. Cic. Pollêre nôbituite. Tac. Animōque et corpôre torpet. Hor.

REMARK. This may be called the ablaine of limitation, and denotes the relation expressed in English by 'in respect of,' 'in regard to,' 'as to,' or 'in.'—Respecting the genitive of limitation after adjectives, see § 213;—after verbs, § 220, 1: and respecting the accusative of limitation, see § 231, K. 5; § 232, (3.); and § 234, II.

2. (1.) Adjectives of plenty or want are sometimes limited by the ablative; as,

Dōmus plēna servis, A house full of servants. Juv. Dīves agris, Rich in land. Hor. Fēras secālum bōnis artībus. Plin.—Inops rerbis, Deficient in words Cic. Orba Frātrībus, Destitute of brothers. Ovid. Viduum arbōrībus solum. Colum. Nādus agris. Hor. For the genitive after adjectives of plenty and want, see § 213, R. 3–5.

(2.) Verbs signifying to abound, and to be destitute, are followed by the ablative; as,

Scätentem belluis pontum, The sea abounding in monsters. Hor. Urbs rédundat militibus, The city is full of soldiers. Auct, ad Her. Villa àbundat porco, hado, agno, gallina, lacte, còsco, melle. Cic.—Virum qui pécània èquet, A man who is in want of money. Id. Càrère culpā, To be free from fault. Id. Men àddlescentia indiget illôrum bónā existimatione. Id. Abundut andāciā, consilio et rátione d'fàctur. Id.

REMARK 1. To this rule belong ábundo, ezübéro, rédundo, scáteo, affluo, circumfluo, diffluo, súperfluo, suppédito, váleo, vigeo;—cáreo, égeo, indígeo, váco, déficior, distituor, etc.

Rem. 2. The genitive, instead of the ablative, sometimes follows certain verbs signifying to abound or to want. See § 220, 3.

Rem. 3. To do any thing with a person or thing, is expressed in Latin by the simple ablative, or the dative, as, Quid do fulliolid med fiel? Cic.; and more frequently by the simple ablative, or the dative, as, Quid doe homine or huic homini fieldis? What can you do with this man? Cic. Next quid field survo,—what he shall do with the gold. Plant, Quid me, fur purit pendis, You care little what becomes of me. Ter.—Sum is occasionally used in the same manner; as, Melum experiment quiddam se father une seef,—what would become of them. Liv.

§ 251. A noun denoting that of which any thing is deprived, or from which it is freed, removed, or separated, is often put in the ablative without a preposition.

This construction occurs after verbs signifying to deprive, free, debar, drive away, remove, depart, and others which imply separation.

Note. The principal verbs of this class are arceo, pello, depello, expello, ab-NOTE. The principal veros of this class are arcco, peuto, depetio, expello, addico, interdico, defendo, deturbo, digitoi, givio, abstervo, diverero, núveo, anúveo,
demoreo, rémoreo, secerno, prolitivo, sepairo, excledo, intereludo, abeo, exeo, cedo,
develo, discedo, desisto, évado, abstineo, spolio, privo, orbo, libero, expédio, lazo,
nado, solvo, exsolvo, exchero, levo, purgo, to which may be added the adjectives liber, immunis, purus, vácuus, and dhenus; as,

Nidatur arbores foliis, The trees are stripped of leaves. Plin. Hoc me libëra metu, Free me from this fear. Ter. Time eam philisiophium siquëre, qua spoliat roes julicio, privat approbatione, orbat sensibus? Cic. Societ se Teurria luctu. Virg. Te ilks sodilbus arcebic. Cic. Q. Varium pellère possessionibus condus est. ld. Omnes tribu rèmoti. Liv. Lèvire se sere allieno. Cic. Me lèves chori scienum populo. Hor. Animus omni liber curà et angiore. Cic. Urumque humine allemissimum. Id. When allemus signifies 'averse' or 'hostile to,' it takes the allative with ah or varely the delives se H. divit and Williemus manima. the ablative with ab, or rarely the dative; as, Id dicit, quod illi cause maxime est aliraum. Id. In the sense of 'unsuited,' it may also be joined with the genitive; as, Quis alicuum putet ejus esse dignitatis? Id.—Alius too, in analogy with adjectives and verbs of separation, sometimes takes an ablative; as, Neve putes alium săpiente bonoque beatum. Hor.; but this may also be referred to the ablative after comparatives. Cf. § 256, R. 14.

Remark 1. Most verbs of depriving and separating are more or less frequently followed by ab, de, or ez, with the ablative of the thing, and always by ab with the ablative of the person; as, Ta Japiter, hunc a tuis aris arcibis. Cic. Presidium ex arec pipulicumt. Nop. Aquam de agro pellère. Plin. Ex ingrates civitate cedere. Cic. Arcen ab incendio liberavit. Id. Solvere belluam ex catēnis. Auct. ad Her.—Sédes remotas a Germanis. Cas. Se ab Etruscis sécernère. Liv.

REM. 2. Arceo, in the poets, sometimes takes the dative, see § 224, R. 2., and sometimes an infinitive; as, Plagamque sédere cédendo arcebat. Ovid .-Prohibeo and defendo take either the accusative of the person or thing to be defended, with the ablative of the thing to be warded off-or the reverseăliquem or ăliquid a periculo, or periculum ab ăliquo. They are also sometimes construed with the dative, see § 224, R. 2, and sometimes with infinitive or subjunctive clauses. Prohibeo has rarely two accusatives; as, Id te Jupiter prohibessit. Plant.; or poetically the accusative and genitive; as, Capta prohibere Panos aquilæ. Sil.—Interdice takes the person either in the accusative or the dative, and the thing in the ablative, aliquem or alicui aliqua re; as, Quibus quum aqua et igni interdixissent. Cæs.—Instead of the ablative, a subjunctive clause with ne, and more rarely with ut, sometimes follows interdico .- Absum, cause with ne, and more rarry with ue, sometimes follows interacco.—Absum, in like manner, takes the ablative with ab, and sometimes the dative; as, Curta nescio quid semper âbest rei. Hor. Cf. § 224, R. 1.—Abdico takes sometimes an ablative, and sometimes an accusative of the thing renounced; as, Abdicâre se māgistrātu. Cic. Abdicâre māgistrātun. Sall. In Plautus, circundāço, to cheait, takes the oblative of the thing. Interclado, instead of an ablative of the thing. Interclado, instead of an ablative of the thing. Interclado, instead of an ablative of the thing with an accusative of the person, sometimes takes an accusative of the thing and a dative of the person; as, Itinerum angustic multitudini fugam intercluserant. Cass.: and, instead of the ablative of the thing, a subjunctive clause with quominus occurs: Intercludor dolore, quominus ad te plūra scrībam. Cic.

REM. 3. Verbs which signify to distinguish, to differ, and to disagree, are generally construed with ab, but sometimes, especially in the poets, with the ablative alone.

Note. Verbs signifying to distinguish, etc., are distinguo, discerno, secerno, différo, discrepo, dissideo, disto, dissentio, discordo, abhorreo, alieno, and abalieno.— Dissentio, dissideo, discrépo, and discordo are construed also with cum.—The verbs which signify to differ are sometimes construed with the dative; as, Distat infido scurræ amīcus. Hor., and in like manner the adjective diversus; as, Nihil est tam Lysiæ diversum, quam Isocrates. Quint.

### ABLATIVE OF PRICE.

§ 252. The price or value of a thing is put in the ablative, when it is a definite sum, or is expressed by a substantive; as,

Quum te trécentis tàlentis régi Cotto rendidisses, When yon had sold yourself to king Cottus for three hundred talents. Cic. Veudidit hic auro patriam, This one sold his country for gold. Virg. Cibus sino asse réndis. Plin. Constitt quadringentis millibus. Varr. Dinis in diem assibus animum et corpus (militum) astinari. Tac. Léri momento astinaire. Cass. Istuc verbum vile est viginti minis. Plaut. Asse carum et. Sen. Ep.

REMARK 1. The verbs which take an ablative of price or value are (1) estimo, daco, facto, fro, habeo, pendo, pato, dipito, taxo: (2) èmo, merror, vendo, do veico, sto, consto, prosto, conduco, bio, valteo, lao, and hieo.—To these must be added others, which express some act or enjoyment for which a certain price is paid; as, Láror quádrante. Trojinta millibus Cultins hábitat. Cic. Viz drachmis est obsònàtus dècem. Ter. D'ôce talento, etc. So esse in the sense 'to be worth'; as, Sextante sali n Rábià èrat.

REM. 2. Respecting the genitive of price or value, when expressed in a general or indefinite manner, see § 214.

REM. 3. The price of a thing, contrary to the general rule, is often expressed indefinitely by a nenter adjective; as, magno, permagno, parro, tantilo, plure, minimo, plurimo, vili, viliori, viliasimo, nimio, etc.; as, Piùre cènil. Cic. Conduccis non magno dómum. Id. These adjectives refer to some noun understood, as prêtio, are, and the like, which are sometimes expressed; as, Parro prêtio ea rendidisse. Cic.—The adverbs bêne, publikre, vecte, mule, câre, etc., sometimes take the place of the genitive or ablative of price; as, Bêne êmêre; recte vendêre; optime vendêre, etc.

REM. 4. Varro has used văleo with the accusative; as, Dinării dieti, quod denos aris vălibant.

Rem. 5. Mato and its compounds, commito and permito, are commonly construed like verbs of selling, the thing parted with being put in the accusative and the thing received in exchange for it, in the ablative; as, Chāōniam glandem pingui mātāvit ārisā. Virg. But these cases are often reversed, so that the thing received is put in the accusative and the thing given for it in the ablative; as, Cur valle permitem Sābinā diritias opērāsieres? Why should I exchange my Sabine valley for more wearisone riches? Hor.—Sometimes in this construction cum is joined with the ablative.

### ABLATIVE OF TIME.

§ 253. A noun denoting the time at or within which any thing is said to be, or to be done, is put in the ablative without a preposition; as,

Die quinte dieessit, He died on the fifth day. Nep. Hot tempöre, At this time. Cic. Tertiä vigiliä ëruptiönem férërunt, They made a sally at the third watch. Cres. Ut hieme näriyes, That you should sail in the winter. Cic. Prozimo triemio omase gentes subejit. Nep. Agamennon cum niniversä Greeciä viz deem annis manse pentes milejit.

Nore 1. The English expression 'by day' is rendered in Latin either by interdiu or die; 'by night,' by noctu or nocte; and 'in the evening.' by respers or resper; see § \$2, Exc. 5. (a.) Ladis is used for in tempore fuctorum; and Saturnālibus, Latinis, plathictoritus, for India Saturnālibus, etc. Other nouns not properly expressing time are used in that sense in the ablative either with or without in, as intho, principio, adventu and discesse all ajus, comittis, tamultu, bello, pâce, etc.; or in intho, etc. But bello is more common without in, if it is

joined with an adjective or a genitive; as, Bello Pänico steundo, bello Litanorum; and so, also, pugnā Cumensi. So we say in puērītiā, but omit in with an adjective; as, estrimā puērītiā. In is very rarely used with nouns expressing a certain space of time; as, aunus, dies, hāra, etc., for the purpose of denoting the time of an event. In tempère signifies either 'in distress,' or 'in time,' i. e. 'at the right time'; but in both cases tempére alone is used, and tempère in the sense of 'early' has even become an adverb, an earlier form of which was tempéri or tempēre, whose comparative is tempēreus.

REMARK 1. When a period is marked by its distance before or after another fixed time, it may be expressed by aute or post with either the accusative or the ablative.—(a) The preposition is regularly placed before the accusative, but after the ablative. If an adjective is used, the preposition is often placed between the adjective and the noun. In this connection the ordinal as well as the cardinal numbers may be used. Hence the English phrase 'after three years,' or 'three years after,' may be expressed in these eight ways; post tres amos, tribus amus post; post terium annum, tertio anno post; tres post annos, tribus pred, annis; tertime post annum, tertio post anno.

(b.) When ante or post stands last, an accusative may be added to denote the time before or after which any thing took place; as, Multis anni post decembros. Cic. So Consul factus est antis post Romann conditam trecents dus-

děnonáginta.

NOTE 2. Post and ante sometimes precede the ablatives, as ante annis octo; post pinuis dibes; and also before such ablatives as are used adverbially, as post dilipianto; ante pratio.

Note 3. Quan and a verb are sometimes added to post and anse in all the forms above specified; e. g. tribus anais postquam venerat; post tres annos quam venerat; tertio anno prostquam venerat; post ansum tertium quam venerat, etc.; all of which expressions signify 'three years after he had come.' Sometimes post is omitted; as tertio anno quam venerations.

Note 4. Instead of postquam, 'after,' we may use ex quo, quem, or a relative a greeing with the preceding ablative; as, Ipse octo diebus, quibus has literas debum, cum Lépidi cépias me conjungam; i. e. in eight days after the date of this letter. Planc. in Cic. Fan. Mors Sex. Roscii quatriduo, quo is occisus est, Christofom nundetur.—four davs after he had been killed. Cic. Quem triduo, quum has dibum literas, exspectibum,—three days after the date of this letter. Planc. in Cic. In such cases in is sometimes joined with the ablative; as, In divinus paucis, quibus how calca sunt, méritur. Ter.

REM. 2. The length of time before the present moment may be expressed by dbhine with the accusative, and, less frequently, the ablative; as, Questor fusite abhine amos quetworderine. Cic. Comittis jum abhine trajunta diebus kābtits. Id. The same is also expressed by ante with the pronoun hie; as, ante hos sex menses maldehizeti mbhi.—six months ago. Phad. Ante is sometimes used instead of dbhine: and the length of time before is sometimes expressed by the ablative joined with hie or ille; as, Paucis his dbebus, or paucis illis dbebus,—a few days ago.

Rem. 3. The time at which any thing is done, is sometimes expressed by the neuter accusative id, with a genitive; as  $Vendt\ id\ tempóris$ . Cic. So with a preposition;  $Ad\ id\ dic$ . Gell. See § 212, R. 3.

REM. 4. (a.) The time at or within which any thing is done, is sometimes, with personal subjects, expressed by de, with the ablative; as, De tertid vigilia ad hostes contentil.—in the third watch. Cass. It jugident homnes surgant do note latrones. Hor. So, also, with save, as, Ne sub upsa profectione milities oppidum irramphrent,—at the very time of its departure. Cass. Sub adventu. Romandrum, While the Romans were arriving. Id.

(b.) The time within which any thing occurs, is also sometimes expressed by

(b.) The time within which any thing occurs, is also sometimes expressed by intra with the accusative; as, Dimidian partern nationum subject intra viginit dies. Plant. Intra decimam diem, quam Phèrus vénèrat, in less than ten days

after ... Liv.

REM. 5. The time within which a thing happens, is often expressed by the ablative with in; especially (a) in connection with numerals; as, Bis in die sittirum fièri; riz ter in anno nuntium audire; and (b), as in the use of intra, to denote that the event happened before the time specified had fully expired.

Rem. 6. Instead of in pueritiā daldescentiā, jūventūte, zēnectūte, etc., in sating the age at which a person performed any action, the concretes puer, āddescens, jūvenis, sēnez, etc., are commonly joined to the verb; as, Ch. Pompeius, āddlescens se et patrem consilio servāvit.—Šo, also, adjectives ending in ēnārius are sometimes used in stating the number of years a person has lived; as, Cteřro sezāgēnārius.

For the ablative denoting duration of time, see § 238.

### ABLATIVE OF PLACE.

§ 254. The name of a town in which any thing is said to be, or to be done, if of the third declension or plural number, is put in the ablative without a preposition; as,

Alexander Bābylone est mortuus, Alexander died at Babylon. Cic. Intererit multum—Thebis nütritus an Argis,—whether brought up at Thebes or at Argos. Hor. Nätus Tibūre vel Gābijs. Id.

REMARK 1. 'In the country' is expressed by τῆτε, or more commonly by τᾶτὶ, without a preposition; as, Pater fīlium τῦτὶ habitāre jussit. Cic. With an adjective only τᾶτε is used; as, Interdum nāgāris τῶτε μάτεπο. Hor. Cf. § 221, X.

REM. 2. (a.) The preposition in is sometimes expressed with names of

towns; as, În Philippis quidam nunciavit. Suet.

- (b.) Names of towns of the first and second declension, and singular number, and also dômus and hômus, are in like manner sometimes put in the ablative without in. See § 221, R. 2 and R. 3.—So, also, terrà màrique, by hand and by sea. In is also frequently omitted with boc and boris, especially when joined with an adjective and having the meaning of 'occusion'; as, Moe bôco, multis bois, etc.—Libro joined with an adjective, as hoe, primo, etc., is used without in when the whole book is meant, and with in when only a portion is referred to. An ablative of place joined with tôto, tôtā, tôtis, is generally used without in; as, Urbe tôtā gêmitus jút. Cic. Tôtā Asiā vogātur. Id. Tôto mārī. Id. But in such cases in is sometimes used. So cauntā Asiā. Liv.
- REM. 3. Before the names of countries, of nations used for those of countries, and of all other places in which any thing is said to be or to be done, except those of towns, and excepting also the phrases specified in the first and second remarks, the preposition in is commonly used; as, Iphicrites in Thrāciā vicit, Chares in Sigeo. Nep. Rāre ipo rievatiem, it dicis in urbe beātum. Hor. Aio hoe jièri in Gracciā. Plant. In Bactriānis Sogaliānisque urbes combilit. Lācus in urbe fait. Virg. But it is sometimes omitted by writers of every class and period; as, Mūltes stātīcis castris hābēbal. Sall. Magnis in luudibus fuit tōtā Gracciā. Nep. Pōpāh sensus maxime theātro et spectificilis perspectus est. Cic. Pompeius se oppīdo bīnet. Id. In the poets and later prose writers this omission is of very frequent occurrence not only with names of towns but with ablatives of all nouns answering to the question, where? as, Nārita puppe sēdens. Ovid. Ibam forte Viā Snorā. Hor. Silvisque agrisque viisçāe corpiora facta jācent. Ovid. Mēdio alveo concursum est. Liv.—Fōris, out at the door, abroad, is properly an ablative of place; as, Fōris canat. Cic. Cf. § 237, R. 5, (c.)
- § 255. 1. After verbs expressing or implying motion, the name of a town whence the motion proceeds, is put in the ablative, without a preposition; as,

Brundtsio profecti sămus, We departed from Brundisium. Cic. Diôngsius Corintho fagot. Id. Demáratus Tarquinios Corintho fagot. Id. Accept taus literas datas Placentia. Id. Interim Bona per literas certur fit; scil. dátas or missas. Sall. J. 82. So, also, after a verbal nom; as, Narbone réditus. Cic.

REMARK I. The ablatives domo, humo, and rure or ruri, are used, like names of towns, to denote the place whence motion proceeds; as,

Domo profectus, Having set out from home. Nep. Surgit hūmo jūrčnie, vouth rises from the ground. Ovid. Rūre huc adornit. Ter. Sī rūri vēniet. Id. Virgil uses dōmo with unde; sa, Qui gians! unde dōmo. and Livy, instead of dōmo dbesse, has esse ab dōmo. With an adjective, rūre, and not rūrī, must be used.

REM. 2. With naives of towns and dômus and hūmus, when answering the question 'whence?' ab, ex, or de, is sometimes used; ax, Ab Alexandria profectus. Cic. Ex dômo. Id. De viiffera venisse Viennā. Mart. Ab hūmo. Virg.

REM. 3. (a.) With other names of places whence motion proceeds, ab, ex, or de, is commonly expressed; as, Me a portu præmisé. Plaut. Ex Asiā transis in Europoun. Curt. Ex custris prôf leiscundur. Cass. De Pomptino, seil. prædio. Cic.—So, also, before names of nations used for those of countries; as, Ex Medis ad adversávióuna hibernácida pervénit. Nep.

(b.) But the preposition is sometimes omitted; as, Litèræ Mácědonia aldite. Liv. Classés Opro adečnů. Curt. Cassissent loco. Liv. Ni cite vicis et castellis praximis subcentum föret. Id. He sacris, propriete sacris, laurumque cipillis ponite. Ovid. Finibus omnes prostluére suis. Virg. Advolvant ingentes montibus ornas. Id. This outission of the preposition is most common in the poets and later prose writers.

The place by, through, or over which, after verbs of motion, commonly follows per; but frequently also it is put in the ablative without a preposition; as,

Per Thöbas iter fecit. Nep. Exercitum vădo transdicit. Cæs. His pontibus păbulătum mittebut. Id. Tribăni militum portă Collină urbem intravere sub signis, niedlique urbe agmine in Aventinum pergunt. Liv. Legiones Penninis Cottianisque Alpibus, pars monte Graio, traducuntur. Tac. Equites vià brevière præntis. Cic.

#### ABLATIVE AFTER COMPARATIVES.

- § 256. 1. When two objects are compared by means of the comparative degree, a conjunction, as quam, atque, etc., is sometimes expressed, and sometimes omitted.
- 2. The comparative degree, when quan is omitted, is followed by the ablative of that with which the comparison is made; as,

Nihil est virtute formāsius, Nothing is more beautiful than virtue. Cic. Quis C. Lælio cōmior? Who is more courteous than C. Lælius? Id.

REMARK 1. The person or thing with which the subject of a proposition is compared, is usually put in the ablative; as,

Salive publicior ille est, tu lecior cortice. Hor. Vilus argentum est auro, virtuitus aneum. 1d. Tultus Hesalius ferocior Romito fuil. Liv. Lacrima inticitus area il. Cic. Quid mogis est divum saxo, quid mollius unda? Ovid. Hoc nemo fuit minus ineptus. Ter. Albanum, Maccinus, sive Fülernum te mägis appositis delectud. Hor.

REM. 2. An object with which a person or thing addressed is compared, is also put in the ablative; as, O fons Bandusia spleudidior vitro! Hor.

Rem. 3. Sometimes the person or thing with which the subject of a proposition is compared, instead of following it in the ablative, is connected with it by quam, and it is then put in the same case as the subject, whether in the nominative or the accusative; as, Oratio quam habitus fuit misérabilior. Cic. Affirmo nullam esse laudem ampliorem quam cam. Id. So, also, when an ablative in the case absolute takes the place of the subject; as, Exlem (seil-duce) plūra, quam gregārio mīlite, tölērante. Tac.

REM. 4. If the person or thing which is compared with any object is neither the subject of the sentence nor the person addressed, quam is commonly used, and the object which follows it is then put in the nominative with sum, and sometimes in an oblique case to agree with the object with which it is compared; as Mélièrem, quam ezo sum, suppino thi. Plant. Eyo hominem calli-dièrem vidi in vininem quam Phormièrem. Ter. Adventus kosium fuit sigris, quam urbi terribitior. Liv. Omnes fontes aestite, quam hicune, sum gélidières. Themistochis nomen, quam Solonis, est illustrius. Cic.-The following example illustrates both the preceding constructions: Ut tibi multo majori, quam Africanus fuit, me non multo minorem quam Lælium faeile et in republica et in amicitia adjunctum esse patiare. Cic.

Rem. 5. (a.) The person or thing with which the object of an active verb is compared, though usually connected with it by quam, (R. 4,) is sometimes put in the ablative, especially in the poets, and frequently also even in prose, if the object is a prononn, particularly a relative pronoun; as, Attalo, quo gravibrem inimicum non habui, sororem dedit, He gave his sister to Attalus, than whom, etc. Curt. Hoc nihîl grātius facère pôtes. Cic. Causam čnim suscipisti antiquibrem měmoriā tuā. Id. Ezêqi mônămentum erre pêrennins. Hor. Cur oftram sun-guine viperino cautius vitut i ld. Quid prius dicam solitis părentis laudibus i ld. Mājora viribus audes. Virg. Nullam sacrā vite prius scrēris arborem. Hor.

Nullos his mallem ludos spectasse. Id. § 178, 3. (b.) The ablative instead of quam is never used with any other oblique case except the accusative, but quam is sometimes found, even where the ablative might have been used; as, Melior tütiorque est certa pax quam spērūta victoria. Liv. After quam, if the verb cannot be supplied from the preceding sentence, est, fuit, etc., must be added; as, thee verba sunt M. Varronis, quain fuit Claudius, dortioris. Gell. Drusum Germanteum minorem natu, quam ipse erat, frātrem ūmīsit. Sen.

Rem. 6. (a.) Minus, plus, and amplius with numerals, and with other words denoting a certain measure or a certain portion of a thing, are used either with or without quam, generally as indeclinable words, without influence upon the construction, but merely to modify the number; as, Non plus quam quatuor millia effügerunt, not effügit. Liv. Pietores antiqui non sunt üsi plus quam qua-

tuor coloribus, not plaribus. Cic.

(b.) Quam is frequently omitted with all cases; as, Minus duo millia hominum ex tanto exercitu effugirunt. Liv. Milites Romani sape plus dimidiati mensis cībūria férēbant. Čic. Qaum plus annum æger fuisset. Liv. Sēdēvim non amplius eo anno légionībus défensum impérium est. Id.

(c.) These comparatives, as in the preceding example, are sometimes inserted between the numeral and its substantive, and sometimes, when joined with a negative, they follow both, as a sort of apposition; as, Quinque millo armatórum, non amplius, rélietum érat presidium,—a garrison of five thousand soldiers, not more. Liv. So, also, longius; Gesar certior est fuelus, magnas Gallorum copias non longius millia passuum octo ab hiberuis suis abfuisse. Cas. See § 236.

(d.) The ablative is sometimes used with these as with other comparatives; as, Dies triginta aut plus eo n navi fui. Ter. Triennio amplius. Cie. Hora amplius molicbantur. Id. Ne longius triduo ab castris absit. Cas. Apud Suevos non longius anno remanere uno in loco incolendi cansa licet. Id. Quum initio non

amplias duobus millibus habuisset. Sall.

REM. 7. Quam is in like manner sometimes omitted, without a change of case, after major, minor, and some other comparatives; as, Obsides ne minores octonum denum annorum neu mājores quīnum quādrāgenum,.... of not less than eighteen, nor more than forty-live years of age. Liv. Ex urbano exercitu, qui minores quinque et triginta annis erant, in naves impositi sunt. The genitive and ablative, in these and similar examples, are to be referred to § 211, R. 6. Longius ab urbe mille passuum. Liv. Annos nātas māgis quādrāginta. Cic.

REM. 8. When the second member of a comparison is an infinitive or a clause, quam is always expressed; as, Nihil est in dicendo mājus quam ut faveat

örātöri audītor. Cie.

REM. 9. Certain nouns, participles, and adjectives,—as opinione, spe, exspectatione, fide,-dicto, solito,-aquo, credibili, necessario, vero, and justo,-are used in a peculiar manner in the ablative after comparatives; as, Opinione cělěrius veniūrus esse dicitur,—sooner than is expected. Cæs. Dicto citius tămida equora placat, Quicker than the word was spoken. Virg. Injurias gravius æquo habere. Sall.

(a.) These ablatives supply the place of a clause; thus, granius aquo is equivalent to gravius quam quod aquum est. They are often omitted; as, Themistocles liberius rivebat, scil. aquo. Nep. In such cases, the comparative may be translated by the positive degree, with too, quite, or rather, as in the above example-' He lived too freely,' or 'rather freely.' Voluptas quum major est atque longior, omne animi lumen exstinguit,-when it is too great, and of too long continuance. Cic. So tristior, scil. solito, rather sad.

(b.) The English word 'still,' joined with comparatives, is expressed by étiam or vel, and only in later prose writers by adhuc; as, Ut in corporibus magnæ dissimilitudines sunt, sic in animis exsistant mājores etiam varietātes. Cic.

REM. 10. (a.) With inferior, the dative is sometimes used, instead of the ablative; as, Vir nullā arte cuiquam inférior. Sall. The ablative is also found; as, Ut hāmānos cāsus virtūte infériores pūtes. Cic. But usually inférior is followed by quam; as, Timotheus belli laude non inférior fuit, quam pater. Cic. Grātiā non inférior, quam qui umquam fuerunt amplissimi. Id.

(b.) Qualis, 'such as,' with a comparative, occurs poetically instead of the relative pronoun in the ablative; as, Nardo perunctum, quale non perfective mew liberariul manus; instead of quo. Hor. Epod. 5, 59. Animae quales neque candidiores terra talit; for quibus. Id. Sat. 1, 5, 41.

Rem. 11. Quam pro is used after comparatives, to express disproportion; as, Prælium atrocius quam pro número pugnantium, The battle was more severe than was proportionate to the number of the combatants. Liv. Minor, quam pro tumultu, cædes. Tuc.

REM. 12. When two adjectives or adverbs are compared with each other, both are put in the comparative; as, Triumphus clarior quam gratior, A tri-nmph more famous than acceptable. Liv. Fortius quam felicius bellum gesserunt. So, also, when the comparative is formed by means of magis; as, Magis audacter quam părate ad dicendum věniebat. Cic.-Tacitus uses the positive in one part of the proposition; as, Speciem excelsa gloriae vehementius quam caute appētēbat; or even in both; as, Clāris mājārībus quam vētustis.

Rem. 13. (a.) Potius and magis are sometimes joined pleonastically with malle and præstare, and also with comparatives; as, Ab omnibus se desertos potius quam abs te defensos esse malunt. Cic. Qui magis vere vincere quam diu impērāre mālit. Liv. Ut ēmori potius quam servīre præstāret. Cic. Mīhi quavis fuga potius quam ulla provincia esset optatior. Id. Quis magis queat esse beatior? Virg.

(b.) So, also, the prepositions præ, ante, præter, and supra, are sometimes used with a comparative; as, Unus præ cetteris fortior exsurgit, Apul. Scelbre ante allos immanior omnes. Virg. They also occur with a superlative; as, Ante allos cárissimus. Nep. As these prepositions, when joined with the positive, denote comparison, they seem in such examples to be redundant. See § 127.

Rem. 14. Alius is sometimes in poetry treated as a comparative, and construed with the ablative instead of alque with the nominative or accusative; as, Nēve pātes ālium săpiente bōnōque beātum. Hor. Alius Lysippo. Id. But compare § 251, N.

REM. 15. By the poets ac and atque are sometimes used instead of quam after comparatives; as, Quanto constantior idem in vities, tanto lévius miser ac prior ille, qui, etc. Hor. Arctius atque hédéra procèra adstringitur ilez. Id.

REM. 16. The degree of difference between objects compared is expressed by the ablative:—

- (1.) Of substantives; as, Minor ûno mense, Younger by one month. Hor. Sesquipēde quam tu longior, Taller than you by a foot and a half. Plaut. Hibernia dimidio minor quam Britannia. Cæs. Dimidio minoris constâbit, It will cost less by half. Cic. Quam molestum est ûno digito plus habere!....to have one finger more, i. e. than we have, to have six fingers. Id.—but the expression is ambiguous, as it might mean 'to have more than one finger.' Sûpêrat câpite et cervicibus allis. Virg.
- (2.) Of neuter adjectives of quantity and neuter pronouns, in the singular number. Such are tunto, quanto, quo, en, hoc, multo, parro, paulo, minio, difquanto, tantiho, alièro lauto (twice as much); as, Multo doctor es patre, Thou art (by) much more learned than thy father. The relative and demonstrative words, quanto—tauto, quo—eo, or quo—hoc, signifying 'by how much—by so much,' are often to be translated by an emphatic die; as, Quanto sōmas sōpēriōres, tanto nos submissius gērāmus. The more eminent we are, the more lumibly let us conduct ourselves: lit. by how much—by so much—. Cic. Eo grācior est dolor, quo culpa est mājor. Id. But the relative word generally precedes the demonstrative; as, Quo difficilius, hoc practārius. Id. Poetically, also, quan māgis—tam māgis are used instead of quanto māgis—tanto māgis. Virg. En. 7, 787: and quam māgis—tanto māgis. Lucr. 6, 459.—Iter multo fācilius,—much easier. Cas. Parvo brēcius, A little shorter. Plin. Eo māgis, The more. Cic. Eo mīnus. Id. Istoc māgis vipūkibis, So much the more. Plant. Via altēro tanto longior,—as long again. Nep. Multo di mazāmus fial. Liv.

(3.) The ablative of degree is joined not only with comparatives but with verbs which contain the idea of comparison; as, mēlo, præsto, sīpēro, excello, autécēlo, antôcēlo, antôcēlo, and others compounded with aute; and also with ante and post, in the sense of 'earlier' and 'later'; as, Multo præstat. Sall. Post paulo, A little after. Id. Multo aute lūcis adventum, Long before— Id. Multis partibus is equivalent to multo; as, Nimèro multis partibus esset inférior. Cas.

Note. The accusatives multum, tantum, quantum, and aliquantum, are sometimes used instead of the corresponding ablatives; as, Aliquantum est ad rem ávidior. Ter. Multum improbióres sunt. Plant. Quantum domo inférior, tantum gloris supérior évisit. Val. Max. Cf. § 232, (3.)—So longe, 'fur,' is frequently used for multo; as, Longe mélior. Virg. Longe et multum antécellère. Cic. So, pars pédis sesqui misjor,—longer by one half. Id.

### ABLATIVE ABSOLUTE.

§ 257. A noun and a participle are put in the ablative, called *absolute*, to denote the time, cause, means, or concomitant of an action, or the condition on which it depends; as,

Pğihāgöras, Tarquinio regnante, in Itāliam vēnit, Pythagoras came into Italy, in the reign of Tarquin. Cic. Löpns, stimālante făme, captat örile, Hunger inciting, the wolf seeks the fold. Ovid. Milles, pēcore et onginquioribus sīcis ādacto, extrīmum fāmem sustentibant. Cæs. Hac örātiöne hābītā, concilium dimisit. Id. Galli, re cognitā, obsidiönem rēlinquunt. Id. Virtūte exceptā, nihil âmicitiā præstibilius pūletis. Cic.

NOTE 1. The Latin ablative absolute may be expressed in English by a similar construction, but it is commonly better to translate it by a clause connected by when, since, while, although, after, as, etc., or by a verbal substantive; as, Te adjavante, With thy assistance. Non-arisi te adjavante, Only with thy assistance, or not without thy assistance. Te non adjavante, Without thy assistance. Cf. § 274, R. 5, (c.)

REMARK 1. This construction is an abridged form of expression, equivalent to a dependent clause connected by quum, si, etsi, quamquum, quamvis, etc.

Thus, for Tarquinio regnante, the expression dum Tarquinius regnabat might be used; for hac örātiöne hābitā; —quum hanc ōrātionem hābnisset, or quum hac ōrātio hābita esset,—contlium dimisit. The ablative absolute may always be resolved into a proposition, by making the noun or pronoun the subject, and the participle the predicate.

REM. 2. This construction is common only with present and perfect participles. Instances of its use with participles in *rus* and *dus* are comparatively rare; as,

Cæsåre ventūro, Phosphöre, redde diem. Mart. Irruptūris tam infestis nātiūnībus. Liv. Quam concio plausum, meo nomine rēcītando, dēdisset,—when my name was pronounced. Cic. Quam immolandā phiṭēnā tristis Culchas esset. Id. Quis est ēnim, qui, nullis off icii præceptis trādendis, phitōsophum se audeat dīcēre—without propounding any rules of duty. Cic. Ci. § 274, R. 5, (c.) and R. 9.

- REM. 3. (a.) A noun is put in the ablative absolute, only when it denotes a different person or thing from any in the leading clause. Cf.  $\S$  274, 3, (a.)
- (b.) Yet a few examples occur of a deviation from this principle, especially with a substantive pronoun referring to some word in the leading clause; as, Se audiente, scribit This giddes. Cic. Lögio ex castris Varrönis, adstante et inspectante ipso, signa sustalit. Cæs. Me düce, ad hunc röti finera, me milite, vêni. Ovid. So M. Porcius Câto, vivo quóque Scipione, all'atrâre i jus magnitadinem solitus êrat. Liv.

Nors 2. Two participles must not be put together in the ablative absolute agreeing with the same noun. Thus, we may say Porcia supe maritum cogitantem insendrat, but not, Porcia marito cogitante invento.

Note 3. Instead of the ablative absolute denoting a cause, an accusative with bb or propher occurs in Livy and in later writers; as, Cānāpum condidēre Spartāni, ob sepultum illic rectorem nāris Cānāpum. Tac. Dēcemetri libros Sibyllinos inspicēre jussi sunt propher territos hōmines nāvis prodigiis. Liv.

REM. 4. The ablative absolute serves to mark the time of an action, by reference to that of another action. If the present participle is used, the time of the action expressed by the participle, is the same as that of the principal verb. The perfect participle and the future in rus, denote respectively an action as prior or subsequent to that expressed by the principal verb.

Thus in the preceding examples—Pýthágóras, Tarquínio regnante, in Itáliam vénit, Pythagoras came into Italy during the reign of Tarquínius. Galli, re cognitá, obstitionem rélinquant, The Gauls, having learned the fact, abandon the siege. So, Rez āpum non nisi migritatro examine fóras procédit, The king-bee does not go abroad, except when a swa m is about to emigrate. Plin.

- Nort 4. Non prius quam, non nisi, ut, vēlut, and tunquam, are sometimes joined with the participle; as. Tibērius excessum Augusti non prius pālum feit, quam Agrippā jūrēne interempto,—not until. Suet. Galli leti, ut explorāda victoriā, ad castra Romāniorum pergunt. Cass. Antiôchus, tamquam non transitāris in Asiam Romānis, etc. Liv.
- REM. 5. (a.) The construction of the ablative absolute with the perfect passive participle, arises frequently from the want of a participle of that tense in the active voice.
- Thus, for Cæsar, having sent forward the cavalry, was following with all his forces,' we find, 'Cæsar, equitatu præmisso, subsequebatur omnibus copius.'
- (b) As the perfect participle in Latin may be used for both the perfect active and the perfect passive participles in English, its meaning can, in many instances, be determined only by the connection, since the agent with a or ad is generally not expressed with this participle in the ablative absolute, as it is with other parts of the passive voice. Thus, Casar, his dictis, contiluum dimisit, might be rendered, 'Casar, kaving said this, or this having been said (by some other person), dismissed the assembly.'
- (c.) As the perfect participles of deponent verbs correspond to perfect active participles in English, no such necessity exists for the use of the ablative absolute with them; as, Cesar, hee loculus, concilium dimini. In the following example, both constructions are united: Râque....agros Remôrum depópulati, onnibus ricis, œlf/iciisque incensis. Ces.
- REM. 6. The perfect participles of neuter deponent verbs, and some also of active deponents, which admit of both an active and a passive sense, are used in the abittive absolute; as, Ortā lūce. Cas. Vil exstincto rel clapso animo, nullum rēšūdire sensum. Cic. Tum multis gloriam ijus ādeptis. Plin. Lūčrus ad exercitus, tamquam ādepto principātu, misit. Tac.
- REM. 7. (a) As the verb sum has no present participle, two nouns, or a noun and an adjective, which might be the subject and predicate of a dependent clause, are put in the ablative absolute without a participle; as,
- Quid, Adolescentillo duce, efficire possent. What they could do under the guidance of a youth. Cass. Me subsire atque impulsive, hoc factum, By my advice and instigation. Plant. Hannibal erico, While Hannibal was living. Nep. Invità Minervà, in opposition to one's genius. Cic. Calo séréno, when the weather is clear. Virg. Me ipparo, without my knowledge. Cic. With names of office, the concrete noun is commonly used in the ablative absolute, rather than the corresponding abstract with in to denote the time of an event; as, Roman wint Mario consule, He came to Rome in the consulship of Marius. Cic.
- (b.) The nouns so used as predicates are by some grammarians considered as supplying the place of participles by expressing in themselves the action of a verb. Such are dux, comes, adjuor and adjutix, autor, testis, judes, interpres, māgister and māgistra, praceptor and praceptix; as, due natūrā, in the sense of due ente nātūrā, under the guidance of nature; judice Polijbio, according to the judgment of Polybius.
- REM. 8. A clause sometimes supplies the place of the noun; as, Nondom comperto quam in recionem vénisset rex. Liv. Audito vénisse nuncium. Tac. Vale dicto. Ovid. This construction, however, is confined to a few participles; as audito, cognito, comperto, explorato, despérato, nunciato, die to, chicto. But the place of such participle is sometimes supplied by a neutre adjective in the ablative; as, heerto practicularity quid pétérent. Liv. Cr. R. 7, (a.) Haud cuipuom dibio quin hostium essent. 14. Justa périedieso véra un fieta promèret. Tac.
- REM. 9. (1.) The noun in the ablative, like the subject nominative, is sometimes wanting; (a) when it is contained in a preceding clause; as, Atteus Serviliam, Brait matrem, non minus post mortem ijus, quam florente, coluit, scil. eo,

i. e. Brito. Nep. (b) When it is the general word for person or persons followed by a descriptive relative clause; as, Hannibal Ibérum côpins trâjêct, præmissis, qui Alpium transitus spécălărentur. Liv. (c) When the participle in the neuter singular corresponds to the impersonal construction of neuter verbs in the passive voice; as, In annis transgressu, multum certâto, Bardesânes vicit. Tac. Mihi, errâto, nulla vênia, recte facto, exigua bus prôpônitur. Cic. Quam, nondum polaum facto, vir mortidague prômisue compliorarentur. Liv. Nam jam orâte ed sum, ut non siet, peccâto, mi ignosci œquum; i. e. si peccâtum fuêrit. Ter. Cf. § 274, H. 5. (b).

(2.) So in descriptions of the weather; as, Tranquillo, seil. mārī, the sea being tranquil. Liv. Sērāno, seil. celo, the sky being clear. Id. Arānei sērāno texunt, nābilo texunt,—in clear and in cloudy weather. Plin. Substantives when used thus are to be considered as ablatives of time; as, Comitiis, lādis, Circensibus. Suetonins has used proscriptione in the sense of 'during the proscription.' So paice et Principe. Tac. Império pôpāli Rōmāni. Cæs.

Rem. 10. This ablative is sometimes connected to the preceding clause by a conjunction; as, Casar, quamquam obsidione Massilia retardante, brivii tamen omnia subegit. Suet. Décembri non ante, quam perlatis legibus, dépositures impérium esse aichant. Liv.

Rem. 11. A predicate ablative is sometimes added to passive participles of naming, choosing, etc. § 210, (3.); as, Hasdrübâle imperatore suffecto. Liv.

### CONNECTION OF TENSES.

- § 258. Tenses, in regard to their connection, are divided into two classes—principal and historical.
- A. The principal tenses are, the present, the perfect definite, and the two futures.
- B. The historical, which are likewise called the *preterite* tenses (§ 145, N. 2.), are the *imperfect*, the *historical perfect*, and the *pluperfect*.
- I. In the connection of leading and dependent clauses, only tenses of the same class can, in general, be united with each other. Hence:—
- 1. A principal tense is followed by the present and perfect definite, and by the periphrastic form with sim. And:—
- 2. A preterite tense is followed by the imperfect and pluperfect, and by the periphrastic form with essem.
- NOTE. The periphrastic forms in each class supply the want of subjunctive futures in the regular conjugation.
  - The following examples will illustrate the preceding rules:-
- (a.) In the first class. Seio quid āgas. Seio quid ēgēris. Seio quid actūrus sis.—Audīri quid āgas, I have heard what you ned doing. Audīri quid ēgēris. Audīri quid actūrus sis.—Audīru quid āgas, etc.—Audīrēro quid āgas, etc.
- (b) În the second class. Sciebam quid ăgēres. Sciebam quid egisses. Sciebam quid acturus esses.—Audri quid ăgēres, I heard what you were doing. Audri quid egisses. Audri equid a atturus esses.—Audreream quid deperes, etc.
- The following may serve as additional examples in the first class; viz. of principal tenses depending on,
- (1.) The PRESENT; as, Non sum ita hêbes, at istac dicam. Cic. Quantum dòlòrem accoperim, ta existimare potes. Id. Nec dubito quin rèditus ejus reipublicae sălutăris futurus sit. Id.

- (2) The Perfect Devinite; as, Sătis provisum est, ut ne quid âgère possint. Id. Quis măsticis, quis huic stàdio librărum se dédidit, quin onnem illarum artium vim comprèhenderit. Id. Difectiones solis prædictæ sunt, quæ, quantæ, quando fattiræ sint. Id.
- (3.) The FUTCHES; as, Sic fácillime, quanta örátörum sit, semperque fuerit paueitas, júdicābit. Id. Ad quos dies reditūrus sim, scribam ad te. Id. Si scieris aspidem litére uspiam, et velle āliquem imprādentem siper eam assidire, cājus mors tibi ēmolūmentum factūra sit, improbe fēceris, nisi monuēris, ne assident. Id.

The following, also, are additional examples in the second class, viz. of preterite tenses depending on,

- (1.) The Imperfect; as, Unum illud extimescābam, ne quid turpiter facĕrem, rel jam effēcissem. Cic. Non ēnim dubitābam, quin eas libenter lectūrus esses. 1d.
- (2.) The HISTORICAL PERFECT; as, Vēni in ijus villam ut libros inde promerem. Id. Hae quum essent nuntiäta, Valirius classem extemplo ad ostium fluminis duxit. Liv.
- (3.) The Pluperfect; as, Pávor cöpĕrat milites, ne mortifĕrum esset vulnus. Liv. Ego ex ipso audieram, quam a te libĕráliter esset tractātus. Cic. Non sălis mihi constitĕrat, cum ăliquâne ântmi mei molestiă, an pôtius libenter te Athénis visūrus essem. Id.

REMARK I. (a.) When the present is used in narration for the historical perfect, it may, like the latter, be followed by the imperfect; as, Lēgātos mittunt, ut pācem imperārent. Cæs.

- (b.) The present is also sometimes followed by the perfect subjunctive in its historical sense; as, Pandue nunc Hélicôna, dec, cantusque movête, Qui bello exciti rêges, que quemque séculæ Complerint campos acies. Virg.
- REM. 2. The perfect definite is often followed by the imperfect, even when a present action or state is spoken of, if it is possible to conceive of it in its progress, and not merely in its conclusion or result; and especially when the agent had an intention accompanying him from the beginning to the end of the action; as, Fici hoc, ut intelligrens, I have done this that you might understand; i. e. such was my intention from the beginning. Sunt philosophi et fuerunt, qui omnino nullam habère censerent hümānārum rerum procūrātionem deos. Čic.
- REM. 3. (a.) The historical perfect is not regularly followed by the perfect subjunctive, as the latter is not, in general, used in reference to past action indefinite.
- (b.) These tenses are, however, sometimes used in connection, in the narrative of a past event, especially in Livy and Cornelius Xepos; as, Factum est, ut plus quam college Militiads valueirit. Xep.
- (c.) The imperfect and perfect are even found together after the historical perfect, when one action is represented as permanent or repeated, and the other simply as a fact; as, Adeo whill miseriti sunt, ut incursiones facerent et Véios in animo habuerint appagnare. Liv.
- (d.) The historical perfect may even be followed by the present, when a general truth is to be expressed, and not merely one which is valid for the time indicated by the leading verb; as, Antioho pacen petenti ad priores conditiones while dadition, Africano predicante, neque Romains, si vincantur, antimos minui, neque, si vincant, sicundis rebus insolescive. Just.
- REM. 4. (a.) As present infinitives and present participles depend for their time upon the verbs with which they are connected, they are followed by such tenses as those verbs may require; as, Apelles pictores quoque cos peccare dicebat, qui non sentirent, quid esset sitis. Cic. Ad te scripsi, te ketter accasans in eq. quod de me etto crédidises. Al.

(b) In like manner the tense of the subjunctive following the infinitive future is determined by the verb on which such infinitive depends; as, Sol Phatchout filso facturum se esse dixit quicquid optasset. Cic.

REM. 5. (a.) The perfect infinitive follows the general rule, and takes after it a principal or a preterite tense, according as it is used in the definite or in the historical sense; as, Arbitramur nos ea præstitisse, quæ rátio et doctrina præscripsérit. Cie. Est quod gaudeus te in ista lòca vénisse, ubi aliquid sópére viderère. Al

(b.) But it may sometimes take a different tense, according to Rem. 2; as, Ita mihi videor et esse Deos, et quales essent satis ostendisse. Cic.

II. Tenses belonging to different classes may be made dependent on each other, when the sense requires it.

(a.) Hence a present or perfect definite may follow a preterite, when the result of a past action extends to the present time; as, Ardbat natura Motensius căpidităte dicendi sic, ut in nullo umquam flagrantius stădium viderim; i. e. that up to this time I have never seen. Cic. And, on the other hand, a preterite may follow a present to express a continuing action in the past; as, Scitote oppidum esse in Sixthă nullum, quo in oppido non isti delecta mătier ad libidiuem esset: (esset here allindes to the whole period of Verres' practorship.) Cic.

(6.) But without violating the rule which requires similar tenses to depend upon each other, the hypothetical imperfect subjunctive, may be followed by the present or perfect subjunctive, since the imperfect subjunctive refers to the present time; as, Mēmòrāre possen quibus in lois maximas lostium còpias pópulus Rômānus parrā mônu fūlefrit. Sall. Possem here differs from possum only by the hypothetical form of the expression.

### INDICATIVE MOOD.

§ **259.** The indicative is used in every proposition in which the thing asserted is represented as a reality.

Note. Hence it is used even in the expression of conditions and suppositions with is, ntil, etsi, and cliamsi, when the writer, without intimating his own opinion, supposes a thing as actual, or, with ntsi, makes an exception, which, only for the sake of the inference, he regards as actual; as, Mors and plane negligendre set, si omnino exstinguit animum, and cliam optenda, si alloque ean deducit, this sit flatures atterms. Cic. Adducterte, this is go instanto, statte omnia et incute frame. Id.—It is likewise used in interrogations.

REMARK 1. The several tenses have already been defined, and their usual significations have been given in the paradigms. They are, however, sometimes otherwise rendered, one tense being apparently used with the meaning of another, either in the same or in a different mood. Thus,

- (1.) (a.) The present is often used for the historical perfect in narration, see \$145, i. 3.—(b)\$ It is sometimes used also for the future to denote the certainty of an event, or to indicate passionate emotion. So, also, when the leading sentence contains the present imperative, si is often joined with the present instead of the future; as, difende si poies.—(c.) The present is also used for the imperfect or perfect, when it is joined with dum 'while'; as, Dum \(\tilde{e}\) of in Sictle sum, nuller statua dijecta est. Cic. It is even so used by Livy in transitions from one event to another; as, Dum in Asiā bellum geritur, ne in \(\tilde{E}\) töldis quidem quitæ res fuerant. But the preterites are sometimes used with dum 'while'; and dum 'us long as' is regularly joined with the imperfect.
- (2.) (a.) The perfect, in its proper signification, i. e. as a perfect definite, denotes an act or state terminated at the present time. Thus Horace, at the close of a work, says, Exègi modimentum were péremulus; and Ovid, in like circumstances, Jamque ôpus exègi. So, also, Panthus in Virgil, in order to de-

note the utter ruin of Troy, exclaims, Fulmus Trões, fuit Ilium, i. e. we are no longer Trojans, Ilium is no more.—(b.) The perfect indefinite or historical perfect is used in relating past events, when no reference is to be made to the time of other events; as, Caesar Rubiconen transiti, Caesar crossed the Rubicon. (c.) As in the epistolary style the imperfect is used instead of the present, when an incomplete action is spoken of (§ 145, IL 3), so the historical perfect is in like circumstances employed instead of the present, when speaking of a completed action. With both the imperfect and perfect, when so used, however, the adverbs nunc and éliumnune muy be used instead of tunc and éliumnune.

(d.) The historical perfect is sometimes used for the pluperfect in narration; as, Sed postpuam aspexi, illico cognòri, But after I (had) looked at it, I recognized it immediately. Ter.—This is the usual construction after postpuam or posteāquam, bib, sik primum, ut, ut primum, quom primum, simul, simul ac, or simul atque, all of which have the signification of 'as soon as,' and sometimes after priusquam. But when several conditions are to be expressed in past time, the pluperiect is retained after these particles; as, dem similar se reiniscrat, nèque causa subtrat, quare animi laborem perferret, luxurious répérication. Nep. So, also, postquam is joined with the pluperfect, when a definite time intervenes between events, so that there is no connection between them; as, Hannibal anno tertio, postquam domo profugierat, cum quinque naribus Africam accessis. Id.—In a very few passages the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive ne joined with postquam.

(3.) The pluperfect sometimes occurs, where in English we use the historical perfect; as, Dixerat, et spissis nocts se condulit umbris, She (had) said, and hid herself in the thick shades of night. Virg. Sometimes, also, it is used for the historical perfect to express the rapidity with which events succeed each other; so, also, for the imperfect, to denote what had been and still was.

(4.) The future indicative is sometimes used for the imperative; as, Vălēbis, Farewell. Cic. And:—

(5.) The future perfect for the future; as, Alio Voco de örātörum ānimo et in-jūrūs vidēro, I shall see (have seen)... Cic. This use seems to result from viewing a future action as if already done, and intimates the rapidity with which it will be completed.

REM. 2. When a future action is spoken of either in the future, or in the imperative, or the subjunctive used imperatively, and another future action is connected with it, the latter is expressed by the future tense, if the actions relate to the same time; as, Nātūram sī sēquēmur dūcem, nunquam āberrābinus. Cic.; but by the future perfect, if the one must be completed before the other is performed; as, De Curhāgine vierri non ante dēsīnam, quam illum excisam esse cognovero. Cic. In English the present is often used instead of the future perfect; as, Fāciām sī potero, I will do it, if I can. U sēmentem fēcēris, ita mētes, As you sow, so you will reap. Cic.

Rem. 3. In expressions denoting the propriety, practicability or advantage of an action not performed, the indicative of the preterites (§ 145, N. 2.) is used, where the English idiom would have led us to expect the imperfect or pluperfect subjunctive.

(a.) This construction occurs with the verbs oportet, necesse est, debeo, convenil, possum, decet, licet, reor, puto; and with par, fus, copia, aquum, justum, consentaneum, satis, satius, aquius, mellius, attilius, optabilius, and optimum—est, erat, etc.

(b.) In this connection the imperfect indicative expresses things which are not, but the time for which is not yet past; the historical perfect and the pluperfect indicative, things which have not been, but the time for which is past; as, Ad mortem te daic jam pridem öportébat, i. e. thy execution was necessary and is still so; hence it ought to take place. Cit.—Longe ütlins fuit augustias aditis occupare, It would have been much better to occupy the pass. Curt. Citilina ërapit e senatu triumphans gaudio, quem omnino vieum illine exire non oportueirat. Cit.

- (c.) In both the periphrastic conjugations, also, the preterites of the indicative have frequently the meaning of the subjunctive; as, Tam bona constanter practa tenenda fuit,—ought to have been kept. Ovid. This is more common in hypothetical sentences than in such as are independent.
- (d) The indicative in such connections is retained, even when a hypothetical clause with the imperfect or pluperfect subjunctive is added, and it is here in particular that the indicative preterites of the periphrastic conjugations are employed; as, Quas i dibia and procule assent, timen omnes binos religibilities considere decebat. Sall. Quoisi Ch. Pompetus privatus cest hot tempore, timen entitlements. Cic.—Delicit totus coercitus point, si fugientes persocati victore essent. Liv. Quas nisi màminaisset, torments étiam declend fuerunt. Cic. Si te non invinissem, périturus per prae lipita fui. Petr. But the subjunctive also is admissible in such cases in the periphrastic conjugations.

Rem. 4. (1.) The preterites of the indicative are often used for the pluperfect subjunctive, in the conclusion of a conditional clause, in order to render a description more animated. They are so used,

- (a) When the inference has already partly come to pass, and would have been completely realized, if something else had or had not occurred, whence the adverb jam is frequently added; as, Jam fames quam pestilenta tristion erat; ni announe foret subcentum,—would have been worse. Liv. The same is expressed by the verb capi instead of jam; as, Britanni circumire terga vincentium cupperant, ni, etc. Tac. And without jam; Effigies Pisons traxerant in Genaturus ac divelibout (would have entirely destroyed them) ni, etc. 13.
- (b.) The perfect and pluperfect are likewise used in this sense, and a thing which was never accomplished is thus, in a lively manner, described as completed; as, £t peractum erat bellum sine sanguine, si Pompeium opprimère Brandisii (Caesar) polluisset. Hor.—The imperfect indicative is rarely used, also, for the imperfect subjunctive, when this tense is found in the hypothetical clause; as, Stullum erat monere, usi fièret. Quint.—Sometimes, also, the preterites of the indicative are thus used in the condition; as, At fuerat melius, si te pure rist tembels. Ovid. See § 261, R. 1.
- (2) 'I ought' or 'I should,' is expressed by the indicative of debeo, and possum is in like manner often used for possem; as, Possum persegui multi oblectamenta return visitiarum, sed, etc., I might speak of the many pleasures of husbandry, but, etc.; and it is usual in like manner to say, difficile est, longum est, infinitum est, e.g. narrarae, etc., for, 'it would be difficult,' 'it would lead too far,' 'there would be no end,' etc.
- (3.) The indicative is used in like manner after many general and relative expressions, especially after the pronouns and relative adverbs which are either doubled or have the suffix cumque; as, quisquis, quotquot, quivamque, tiut, utumque, etc., see §§ 139, 5, (3.) and 191, 1. R. 1, (b.); as, Quidquid id est, timeo D.-waos et diant fiventes. Ving. Quem sors cumque debit, lucro appõne. Hor. Sed quiquo modo sões illud habet. But however that may be. Cic.—In like maner sentences connected by sire—sire commonly have the verb in the indicative, unless there is a special reason for using the subjunctive; as, Sire vērum est, sive fulsum, utili quidem itto rénuncialum est. Later writers however use the subjunctive both with general relatives, etc., and with sive—sire.

### SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

§ 260. The subjunctive mood is used to express an action or state simply as conceived by the mind.

Note. The subjunctive character of a proposition depends, not upon its substance, but upon its form. 'I believe,' I suppose,' are only conceptions, but my believing and supposing are stated as facts, and, of course, are expressed by means of the indicative.' When, on the other hand, I say, 'I should be-

lieve,' 'I should suppose,' the acts of believing and supposing are represented not as facts, but as mere conceptions. Hence the verb that expresses the purpose or intention for which another act is performed, is put in the subjunctive, since it expresses only a conception; as, Edo ut vivam, I cat that I may live. This mood takes its name from its being commonly used in subjoined or dependent clauses attached to the main clause of a sentence by a subordinate connective. In some cases, however, it is found in independent clauses, or in such, at least, as have no obvious dependence.

I. The subjunctive, in some of its connections, is to be translated by the indicative, particularly in *indirect questions*, in clauses expressing a result, and after adverbs of time; as,

Röges me quid tristis sim,—why I am sad. Tac. Stellärum tenta est multitide, ut nămérări non possint,—that they cannot be counted. Quum Cesar esset in Gullia, When Casar was in Gaul. Cas.

II. The subjunctive is used to express what is contingent or hypothetical, including possibility, power, liberty, will, duty, and desire.

REMARK I. The tenses of the subjunctive, thus used, have the significations which have been given in the paradigms and are, in general, not limited, in regard to time, like the corresponding tenses of the indicative. Thus,

(1.) The present may refer either to present or future time; as, Mědiōcribus et quis ignoscus vilis tèneor, I am subject to moderate faults, and such as you may excuse. Hor. Orat a Gesăre ut det sibi véniam, He begs of Cæsar that he would give him leave. Cæs.

(2.) The imperfect may relate either to past, present, or future time; as, Si făta finsent ut căderem, If it had been my fate that I should fall. Virg. Si possem, sănior essem, I would be wiser, if I could. Ovid. Ctêros răpērem

et prosternerem, The rest I would seize and prostrate. Ter.

(3.) The perfect subjunctive has always a reference to present time, and is equivalent to the indicative present or perfect definite; as, Errārim fortasse, Perhaps I may have erred. Plin.—When it has a future signification it is not to be accounted a perfect, but the subjunctive of the future perfect. See Rem. 4 and 7, (1.) But compare § 258, R. 1, (b.) and R. 3, (b.)

(4.) The pluperfect subjunctive relates to past time, expressing a contingency, which is usually future with respect to some past time mentioned in connection with it; as, Id responderant se factures esse, quam ille vento Aquilone.

venisset Lemnum.... when he should have come.... Nep.

REM. 2. The imperfects reliem, nollem, and mollem, in the first person, express a wish, the non-reality and impossibility of which are known; as, relem, I should have wished.—In the second person, where it implies an indefinite person, and also in the third when the subject is an indefinite person, the imperfect subjunctive is used in the sense of the pluperfect, and the condition is to be supplied by the mind. This is the case especially with the verbs, dice, piùa, arbitror, crède; also with video, cruo, and discerno; as, Mestique (crèderes vitos) rèdeunt in castra,—one might have thought that they were defeated. Liv. Péciaire on fâme minns parcèret, haud facile discerners. Sall. Qui vidèret équeun Trògianum introductum, urbem coptam dicèret. Cic. Quis umquam crèderet? Id. Quis putitre? Id.—The imperfect subjunctive is frequently used, also, for the pluperfect in interrogative expressions; as, Secrâtes quam regaritum cigiten se esse dicèret, Mundianum, inquit. Id. Quad si quis deus dicèrei, numquam pittirem me in Acidemia tamquam philosophum disputaturum, If any gol had said...Il never should have supposed. Cic.

REM. 3. The subjunctive in all its tenses may denote a supposition or concession; as, Vendat weles vir bönns, Suppose an honest man is selling hones. Cic. Dixerit Epicarus, Grant that Epicurus could have said. Id. Virum an eps pagae fuerat fortana.—Finsset, Grant that it might have been Virg. Malus civis Cn. Orbo fait. Fuerit dits, He may have been to others. Cic.—This concessive subjunctive is equivalent to calo at.

REM. 4. The present and perfect subjunctive are used in independent propositions to soften an assertion. When so used, they do not differ essentially from the present and future indicative; as, Porsitan quærātis, You may perhaps ask. Vēlim sic existimes, I would with you to think so. Nemo istud tob conceidat, or concesserit, No one will grant you that. Hoe sine ulfa distitution confirmaverim, Floquentiam rem esse omnium difficillimam, This I will unhesitatingly affirm. Cic. Nit êgo contilierim jūcundo sănus âmico. Hor. The form which is called the perfect subjunctive, when thus used for the future, seems to be rather the subjunctive of the future perfect: see Rem. 7, (1.) Vôlo and its compounds are often so used in the present; as, Vēlim obvias mihi lūtiras cribor mittas, I wish that you would frequently send, etc. Cic. The perfect subjunctive is also rarely used in the sense of a softened perfect indicative; as, Forsitan temére ficerim, I may have acted inconsiderately.

REM. 5. The subjunctive is used in all its tenses, in independent sentences, to express a doubtful question implying a negative answer; as, Quo ears! Whither shall I go? Quo irem? Whither should I go? Quo irem? Whither was I to have gone? Quo ireisem? Whither should I have gone? The answer implied in all those cases is, 'nowhere.' So, Quis dibitet quin in virtuite divitive sint? Who can doubt that riches consist in virtue? Cic. Quisquam numen Junonis adoret preteres? Virg. Quidni, inquit, meminerin? Cic. Quis vellet tunti muntius esse ndil!? Ovid.

REM. 6. The present subjunctive is often used to express a wish, an exhortation, asseveration, request, command, or permission; as,

Moriar, si, etc. May I die, if, etc. Cic. Pêream, si non, etc. May I perish, if, etc. Ovid. So, Ne sim salvas. Cic. In média arma rulams, Let us rush.... Virg. Ne me attingas, scéleste! Do not touch me, villain! Ter. Faciat quod làbet, Let him du what he pleases. Id. The perfect is often so used; as, Inse viderit, Let him see to it himself. Cic. Quan id rete fácian, viderita spientes. Id. Meminerimus, étam aderaus infimos justitirm esse servandam. Id. Nhili incommodo voltituluis tuas fécris. Id. Emas, non quod õpus est, sed quod nêcesse est. Son. Dônis impli me placare audeant deos; Platônem audiant. Cic. Natarana expellas furca, tâmen usque récurret. Hor.

(a.) The examples show that the present subjunctive, in the first person singular, is used in asseverations; in the first person plural, in requests and exhortations; in the second and third persons of the present and sometimes of the perfect, in commands and permissions, thus supplying the place of the imperative, especially when the person is indefinite.

(b.) With these subjunctives, as with the imperative, the negative is usually not non but ne; as, ne dicas; ne dicat; ne dixéris. So, also, ne fuérit, for licet ne fuérit.

(c.) The subjunctive for the imperative occurs most frequently in the third person. In the second person it is used principally with ne; as, ne dicas. In the latter case the perfect very frequently takes the place of the present; as, ne diseris. The subjunctive is also used in the second person, instead of the imperative, when the person is indefinite.

(d.) In precepts relating to past time, the imperfect and pluperfect, also, are used for the imperative, as, Forstan non nemo vir fortis dixerit, restitisses, mortem pagnans oppictisses,—you should have resisted. Cic.

REM. 7. In the regular paradigms of the verb, no future subjunctive was exhibited either in the active or passive voice.

(1.) When the expression of futurity is contained in another part of the senence, the future of the subjunctive is supplied by the other tenses of that mood, viz. the future subjunctive by the present and imperfect, and the future perfect by the perfect and pluperfect. Which of these four tenses is to be used depends on the leading verb and on the completeness or incompleteness of the action to be expressed. The perfect subjunctive appears to be also the subjunctive of the future perfect, and might not improperly be so called; as,

Trutum môneo, hoc tempus si āmīsēris, te esse nullum umquam māgis idēneum rēpertārum, I only warn you, that, if you should lose this opportunity, you will never find one more couvenient. Cic.

- (2.) If no other future is contained in the sentence, the place of the future subjunctive active is supplied by the participle in rus, with sim and essent; as, Non dibitat quin brêri Troja sit peritūra, He does not doubt that Troy will soon be destroyed. Cie. In hypothetical sentences the form with fuerim takes the place of a pluperfect subjunctive; as, Quis taim dibitat, quin, si Siguntais impigre tilliseimus opem, totum in Hispāniam äversūri bellum tuerimus. Liv. The form in fuissem occurs also, but more rurely; as, Appāruit, quandam excitātūra molem vēra fuisset clādes, quum, etc. See Periphrastic Conjugation, § 102, 14.
- (3.) The future subjunctive passive is supplied, not by the participle in dus, but by fătărum sit or esset, with ut and the present or imperfect of the subjunctive; as, Non dābīto quin fūtūrum sit, ut laudētur, I do not doubt that he will be praised.

### PROTASIS AND APODOSIS.

- § **261.** In a sentence containing a condition and a conclusion, the former is called the protăsis, the latter the apodòsis.
- 1. In the protasis of conditional clauses with si and its compounds, the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive imply the non-existence of the action or state supposed, the imperfect, as in English, implying present time. In the apadosis the same tenses of the subjunctive denote what the result would be, or would have been, had the supposition in the protasis been a valid one; as,

Nisi te sătis incitătum esse confiderem, scriberem plūra, Did I not believe that you have been sufficiently incited, I would write more (Cic.); which implies that he does believe, and therefore will not write. Si Veptūnus, quad Thēseo promisërat, non fecisset, Thēseus filio Happolijto non esset orbitus. Id.

2. The present and perfect subjunctive in the protasis, imply the real or possible existence of the action or state supposed; as,

Si rēlli, if he wishes, or, should wish, implying that he either does wish, or, at least, may wish. In the apodosis the present or perfect either of the subjunctive or of the indicative may be used.

REMARK 1. The tenses of the indicative may also be used in the protonsis of a conditional sentence with  $s_i$  etc.; as, Si vales, bene etc. Cic. Si quis antea mirabatur quid esset, cx hor tempore miritur politus... Id.—The conjunction si in the protonsis is often omitted; as, Libet agros cmi. Primam quaro quos agros I fly on will buy lands, I will first ask, etc. But the protonsis may be rendered without if, and either with or without an interrogation, as, You will buy lands, or, Will you buy lands? The future perfect often occurs in the protonsis of such sentences; as, Casus médicusre lévârit agrum ex pracipit, mêter delira néchit, (Hor.) Should chance or the physician have saved him, the silly mother will destroy him. Si is in like manner omitted with the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive, in supposing a case which is known not to be a real one; as, Libsque te esset, holde numquam ad sôlem occasum rebyrem. Plaut.

KEM. 2. The present and perfect subjunctive differ but slightly from the indicative, the latter giving to a sentence the form of reality, while the subjunctive represents it as a conception, which, however, may at the same time be a reality. The second person singular of the present and perfect subjunctive often occurs in addressing an indefinite person, where, if the person were definite, the indicative would be used; as, Memoria minutur, mist cam excreas. Cic. When the imperfect or pluperfect is required to denote a past action,

the indicative must be used, if its existence is uncertain, as those tenses in the subjunctive would imply its non-existence. In the brain obliqua, when the leading verb is a present or a future, the same difference is observed between the tenses of the subjunctive as in hypothetical sentences; but when the leading verb is a preterite the difference between possibility and impossibility is not expressed.

REM. 3. The present and perfect subjunctive are sometimes used, both in the protains and appelosis of a conditional sentence, in the sense of the imperfect and pluperfect; as, Tu, si hic sis, aliter sentias, If you were here, you would think otherwise. Ter. Quos, ni mea cura resistat, jam flammee tülerint. Virg.

REM. 4. The protosis of a conditional sentence is frequently not expressed, but implied; as, Mygno mercentur Atride, i. e. si possint. Virg.; or is contained in a participial clause; as, Agis, etsi a multitudine victus, gloria timen omnes vicit. Just. So, also, when the participle is in the ablative absolute; as, Dönärent tripolas—divite me scilicet artitum, quas aut Parrhäsius protailit, aut Scopas. Hor. C. Mācius Porsēnam interficire, propositā sibi morte, conātus est. Cic. It is only in later writers that the concessive conjunctions etsi, quamquam, and quamris are expressed with the participle, but timen is often found in the apodosis, even in the classic period, when a participial clause precedes as a protasis.

REM. 5. In hypothetical sentences relating to past time, the actions seem often to be transferred in a measure to the present by using the imperfect, either in the protousis or the apodosis, instead of the pluperfect, as, Quod certe non fécisset, si aum núméram (nautārum) nāces hāberent. Cie. Cimbri si stātim infesto agmine urbem přtissent, grande discrimen esset. Flor. Sometimes the imperfect, although the actions are completed, appears both in the protosis and the apodosis.

REM. 6. Nisi, utsi vivo, and utsi forte are joined with the indicative, when they introduce a correction. Nisi then signifies 'except'; as, Nesco; misi hoe video. Cic. Nisi vivo, and utsi forte, 'unless perhaps,' introduce an exception, and imply its improbability; as, Nimo five sallat sobrius, misi forte insanit. Cic. Nisi forte in the sense of 'unless you suppose,' is commonly used ironically to introduce a case which is in reality inadmissible.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE AFTER PARTICLES.

#### A. Substantive Clauses.

§ **262.** A clause denoting the purpose, object, or result of a preceding proposition, takes the subjunctive after *ut*, *ne*, *quo*, *quin*, and *quŏmīnus*; as,

Ea nom, ut te instituérem, scripsi, I did not write that in order to instruct you. Cic. Irritant ad pugnandum, quo fiant acriôres, They stimulate them to fight, that they may become fiercer. Varr.

REMARK 1. Ut or ŭti, signifying 'that,' 'in order that,' or simply 'to' with the infinitive, relates either to a purpose or to a result. In the latter case it often refers to sic, ĭta, ădeo, tam, tālis, tantus, is, ējusmūdi, etc., in the preceding clause; as,

Id mihi sic ërit gratum, ut gratius esse nihil possit, That will be so agreeable to me, that nothing can be more so. Cic. No sum ita hébes, ut istuc dram. Id. Nêque tam èramus amentes, ut explorata nobis esset victoria. Id. Tantum indulsit dislari, ut eum piètris rincèret. Nep. Ita and tum are sometimes omitted; as, Epiamianodas fuit étiam disertus, ut nêmo Thébanus ei par esset Eloquentia, instead of tam disertus. Id. Esse aportet ut vivas, non vivère ut êdas. Auct. ad Her. Sol efficit ut nomia floreant. Cic.

REM. 2. Ut, signifying 'even if' or 'although,' expresses a supposition merely as a conception, and accordingly takes the subjunctive; as,

Ut dësint vires, tûmen est tendanda võluntas, Though strength be wanting, yet the will is to be praised. Ovid. Ut, in this sense, takes the negative non; as, Exercitus si põeis nõmen audičrit, ut non referat pêdem (even if it does not withdraw) insistet certe. Cie.

REM. 3. Ut, with the subjunctive denoting a result, is used with impersonal verbs signifying it happens, it remains, it follows, etc.; as,

Qui fit, it nëmo contentus vivat? How does it happen that no one lives contented? Hor. Haic contigit, it portriam ex servitute in libertôtem vindicaret. Nep. Sequitur ipitur, it étiam vitie sint parca. Cic. Réliquium est, it égômet mihi considam. Nep. Restat tyitur, it môtus astrorum sit voluntirius. Cic. Extrénum Illud est, it te ôrem et observem. Ist.

Note 1. To this principle may be referred the following verbs and phrases signifying 'it happens,' viz. fit, fier i non potest, accidit, incidit, contingit, evenit, usus venit, occurrit and est (it is the case, or it happens, and hence esto, be it that)—and the following, signifying 'it remains,' or 'it follows,' viz. futurum, extrimum, prope, proximum, and reliquum—est, reliaquitur, sequitur, restat, and superest: and sometimes accedit.

Nore 2. Conting it with the dative of the person is often joined with the infinitive, instead of the subjunctive with  $ut_i$  as, Non cuiris  $h\bar{o}mtni$  conting it adire Chrindhum. Hor. And with esse also and other verbs of similar meaning, the predicate (as in the case of lict) is often found in the dative.— $S\bar{o}putur$  and  $S\bar{o}putur$  and sometimes the accusative with the infinitive and sometimes the subjunctive; and muscitur, in the same sense, the subjunctive only.

Note 3. Mos or môris est, consuitado or consuitadois est, and naturo or consuitado firet, are often followed by ut instead of the infinitive—Ut also occurs occasionally after many such phrases as nocum est, rarum, naturale, necesse, usutatum, nirum, singüláre—est, etc., and after arquum, rectum, vérum, ütile, vérismile, and integrum—est.

For other uses of ut, with the subjunctive, see § 273.

REM. 4. Ut is often omitted before the subjunctive, after verbs denoting willingness and permission; also after verbs of asking, advising, reminding, etc., and the imperatives die and fac; as,

Quid ris fúciam? What do vou wish (that) I should do? Ter. Insāni fériant sine libra fuctus. Virg. Tenies dissimulāre rógat. Ovid. Id sīnas ôro. Id. Se saādēre, diett, Phornabizo id nēgētii dāret. Nep. Accēdat oportet actio vāria. Cic. Fac cōgites. Sull. So, Vide ex nāri efferantur, quæ, etc. Plaut

Verbs of willingness, etc., are võlo, mālo, permitto, concēdo, pātior, sīno, līcet, vēto, etc.; those of asking, etc., are võzo, öro, quoso, mõneo, admõneo, jibeo, mando, pēto, prècor, carso, suád-o, prott, ticesse est, postilo, hortor, citro, dêcerno, opto, impēro.

Rem. 5.  $N\tilde{e}$ , 'that not,' 'in order that not,' or 'lest,' expresses a purpose negatively; as,

Cara ne quit ei d'sit. Take care that nothing be wanting to him. Cic. Nova pradens paint, ut all Plato, quin precâtum est, sed ne precâtur. Id. Une is frequently used for ne, especially in solemn discourse, and hence in laws; as, Opèra detur, ut judicia ne frant. Id. Quo ne is used in the same manner in on pressage of llorace. Missus ad hes—quo ne per vicuum Romêno incurrèret hostis—On the other hand ut non is used when a simple result or consequence is to be expressed, in which case lia, sic, tan are either expressed or understood; as, Tom forte agròtidum, ut ad nuplius tuas rénère non possem. In a few cases, however, ut non is used for ne.—Ut non is further used, when the negation re-

fers to a particular word or to a part only of the sentence, as in similar cases si non must be used, and not nisi; as, Emfer te ad Manlium, ut a me non ejectus ad dilicnos, sed institutes ad two isses videāris. Cic.

Rem. 6. Nē is often omitted after care; as,

Cive putes, Take care not to suppose. Cic. Compare § 267, R. 3.

REM. 7. After mētuo, timeo, vēreor, and other expressions denoting fear or eaution, nē must be rendered by that or lest, and ut by that not.

Note 3. To the verbs mētuo, timeo, and vēreor are to be added the substantives expressing fear, apprehension or danger, and the verbs terreo, conterreo, deterreo, căreo, to be on one's guard, video and observo in requests (as, vide, videte and videndum est), in the sense of 'to consider'; as,

Milo métuibut, ne a servis indicarêtur, Milo feared that he should he betrayed by his servants. Cie. Vêreor, ne, dum minuière rélim hibbrem, augeam. Id. Pâvor êrat, ne castra hostis aggrédérêtur. Liv. Illa duo rêreor, ut tibi possim conceidère, I fear that I cannot grant.... Cie. Circulum est ne assentatioribus păt-făciămus avers, neu didlairi nos sinămus. Cie. Vide ne hoc tibi obsit. Terruit gentes, grâve ne rédiret séculum Pyrrhæ. Multităduem dêterrent, ne frâmentum conferant. Cess. Me missrum! ne prôna câdas. Ovid.

Note 4. Nive or neu is used as a continuative after ut and ne. It is properly equivalent to aut ne, but is also used for et ne after a preceding ut; as, on the other hand, et ne is used after a negation instead of aut ne; as, Liepen tailit, ne quis ante activum virum activaritur, neve multaretur. Nep. Casar milites non longifor viritione collorations, quan util suce pristane viritiis mémovium virturent, neu perturbirentur animo—pracili committendi signum dédit. Cass. Néque, also, is sometimes used for et ne after ut and ne; as, Ut en prætermittam, nèque es appellem. Cic. Car non sancitis ne virinus patricio sit plébeins, nec edém illuère eat. Liv.—Ne non is sometimes used for ut after verbs of feuring; as, Timeo ne non impétrem, I fear I shall not obtain it.

Rem. 8. The proposition on which the subjunctive with ut and n\(\tilde{e}\) depends, is sometimes omitted; as, Ut ita dicam. Cic. Ne singulos n\(\tilde{o}\) initiation. Liv.

Note 5. Nodum, like ne, takes the subjunctive; as, Optimis tempöribus clārissimi viri vim tribinātām sastārēre non potuvent; nēdum his tempöribus sīne jādatörum vienēdis salvi esse pos-smus,—still less, etc. Cic. Ne is sometimes used in the sense of nodum; as, Noram eam potestātem (scil. tribinārum plībis) ŝripēre patribus nostris, ne nune dulcīda sāmel capti ferant dēsiderium. Liv.— Nēdum without a verb has the meaning of an adverb, and commonly follows a negative; as, Ægre inermis tanta multitādo, nēdum armīda, sustinēri potest. Liv. Nē, also, is used in the same manner in Cic. Fam. 9, 26.

REM. 9. Quō, 'that,' 'in order that,' or, 'that by this means,' especially with a comparative; non quō, or non quod, 'not that,' 'not as if'; non quin, 'not as if not'; which are followed in the apodŏsis by sed quod, sed quia, or sed alone; and quōmīnus, 'that not,' after clauses denoting hinderance, take the subjunctive; as,

Adjūta me, quo id fiat făcilius, Aid me, that that may be done more easily. Ter. Non quo rēpūblicā sit sahi quicquam cāvius, sed despērāts étiam Hippócrātes rētat ādlūbēre mīdeinam. Cic. Non quod sola ornent, sed quod excellant. Id. Nēpue rēcāsārit, quo minus bēps pænam stibiret. Nep. Ego me dūcem in cērīli bello nēgāci esse, non quin rectum esset, sed quia, etc. Cic. And instead of non quia we may say non quo non, non quod non, or non quia non; and for non qued, non eo quod, or non tdeo quod.

REM. 10. Quin, after negative propositions and questions with quis and quid implying a negative, takes the subjunctive. Quin is used,

- 1. For a relative with non, after nēmo, nullus, nihil....est, rēpēritur, invēnītur, etc., vix est, egre rēpērītur, etc.; as, Messānam nēmo rēnit, quin vidērit, i. e. qui non rūlēvit, No one came to Messana who did not see. Cic. Nēgo ullum pictūram fuisse....quin conquīsiērit, i. e. quum non, etc. Id. Nihil est, quin māle norvando possit dēprārāri. Ter. Quis est, quin cernat, quanta vis sit in sensībus ? Cic.
- NOTE 6. When quin is used for the relative it is commonly equivalent to the nominative qui, quac, quod, but it is sometimes used in prose instead of the accusative, and sometimes after dies for quo, as the ablative of time; as, Dies fère nullus est, quin hic Sitius domum meam venitiet, i. e. quo—non rentitet. Cic.—Qui non is often used for quin; as, Quis ènim èrat, qui non sciret. Id.; and when quin stands for qui non or quod non, is and id are sometimes added for the sake of emphasis; as. Cleunthes nègat ublum cibum esse tam gràrem, quin is die et nocte concòquatur. Cic. Nihil est quod sensum hàbeat, quin id intéreat. Ho. So, also, the place of quin is supplied by ut non; as, Augustus numquam filios suos phyblo commendirit ut non adjitère! (without adding) si mèrbountur. Suet. And it no negation precedes, or il non belongs to a particular word, and not to the verb, qui non and ut non must of course be used and not quin.
- 2. For ut non, 'that not,' or 'without' with a participle, especially after facere non possum, fiéri non pôtest, null's cans: est, quid causæ est; als, Facere non possum quin ad te mittam, i. e. ut non, etc. Cic. Namquam tum male est Sientis, quin ôltquid facete et commôde dicant. Cic. Numquam accedo, quin abs te âbeam doctor,—without going from you wiser. Ter.
- Note 7. Quin takes the subjunctive also after the negative expressions non dibito, non est dibium, non ambigo, I doubt not; non abest; nilid, paulum, non procul, haud multum abest; nou, rix, agre alstineo; tênère me, or tempérare milit non possum; non impédio, non réciso, nihil pratermitto, and the like. In these cases, however, the negation in quin is superfluous, and it is generally translated into English by 'that,' 'but that,' or 'to' with an infinitive; as, Non dibito quin domi sit, that he is at home. Non multum abest, quin insterrbuns sim, Not much is wanting to make me most wretched. Cic. Hence, as quin is not in such cases regarded as a negative, non is superadded when a negative sense is required; as, In quibus non dibito quin 'ffensionem neghonite viture alse efficier non possum. Cic. Dibitandum non est quin numquam possit utilitas cum hônestile contendère. Id.
- NOTE 8. In Nepos, non dablto, in the sense of 'I do not doubt,' is always followed by the infinitive with the accusative, and the same construction often occurs in later writers but not in Cicero: in the sense of to scruple or hesitate, when the verb following has the same subject, dablto and non dablto are generally followed by the infinitive; as, Cicero non dabltābat conjuratos supplicio afficere.—It may be added that 'I doubt whether' is expressed in Latin by dablto sitne, dablto utrum—an, dablto sitne—an, or dablto num, numquid, for dablto an, and dablum est an are used, like nescio an with an affirmative meaning.
- Note 9. Quin signifies also 'why not?' being compounded of the old ablative qui and  $m_i^2$ , i. e. non, and in this sense is joined with the indicative in questions implying an exhortation; as, Quin consendimus  $eq_{nos}$ ? Why not mount our horses? In this sense it is also joined with the imperative; as, Quin dio sitim, Well, tell me: or with the first person of the subjunctive. Hence without being joined to any verb it signifies 'even' or 'rather.'
- REM. 11. The principal verbs of hinderance, after which quontums occurs, and after which ne, and, if a negative precedes, quin also may be used, are deterred, impédio, intercédo, obsisto, obsto, offrito, prohibeo, récâso, and répugno. It occurs also after stat or fit per me, I am the cause, non pugno, nihit moror, non conflue me, etc.

NOTE. Impēdio, dēterreo, and rēcūso are sometimes, and prohibeo frequently followed by the infinitive. Instead of quominus, quo secius is sometimes used.

- § 263. The particles specified in this section always introduce a sentence containing only a conception of the mind, and are hence joined with the subjunctive.
- 1. The subjunctive is used after particles of wishing, as  $\tilde{u}t\tilde{u}nam$ ,  $\tilde{u}ti$ , O! and O! si; as,

Ulinam minus vitæ căpidi fuissēmus! O that we had been less attached to life! Cic. O si sŏlitæ quicquam virtūtis ădesset! Virg.

REMARK. The present and perfect tenses, after these particles, are used in reference to those wishes which are conceived as possible; the imperfect and pluperfect are employed in expressing those wishes which are conceived as wanting in reality. Cf. § 261, 1 and 2.—'Would that not' is expressed in Lattin both by \*\*itnam ne\* and \*\*itnam non. Utinam is sometimes omitted; as, Tecum taddre sixut ipsa possem! Catull.

### B. ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.

2. (1.) Quamvis, however; līcet, although; tāmquam, tamquam si, quāsi, ac si, ut si, vēlut, vēlut si, vēlut, sicūti, sacūti, and ceu, as il; mödo, dum, and dummödo, provided,—take the subjunctive; as,

Quamvis ille f'élix sit, tâmen, etc. However happy he may be, still, etc. Cic. Vivius licet millum d'épénsôrem obtinent, Though truth should obtain no defender. Id. Tamquam clausa sit Asia, sie uhill perfectur ad nos. Id. Sed quid ègo his testibus ütor, quasi res dibia aut obscara sit? Id. Me omnibus rébus, juxta a si meus frâter esset, sustentivit, He supported me in every thing, just as though he were my brother. Id. Similiter fâcère eos,—ut si naute certairent, dier, etc. Id. Absentis Arioisiel orieditatem, veht si coram delsset, horriernt. Cæs. Inque sinus caros, véhit cognoscèret, ibut. Ovid. Steati jurgio làcessita forct, is sindium vénit. Sall. Hie véro inquetuem pagnam, cen célèra nusquam bellu forent. Ving. Odérint dum métuant. Att. in Cic. Micaent ingénia sénibus, modo permâneat stalume t industria. Cic. Omnia hônesta negligant dimmôdo potentum conséquantur, They disregard every honorable principle, provided they can obtain power. Id.

Note. Modo, dum, and dummodo, when joined with a negation, become modo ne, dum ne, and dummodo ne.

- (2.) Quamvis (although) is in Cicero joined with a principal tense of the subjunctive; as, Quamvis non fueris suasor, approbator certe fuist. Cic. In later writers it is often used with the indicative; as, Feliuen Nibben, quamvis tot findera vidit. Ovid. So also once in Cicero, Quamvis patrem suum numquam viderat. Rab. Post. 2.
- (3.) Quamvis, as a conjunction, in the sense of 'however much,' is joined with the subjunctive. So also when its component parts are separated; as, C. Gracthus died; sibi in somnis Ti. fratrem visum esse die're, quam vellet cuncturetur, timen, etc.— Quamvis 'however much,' as an adverb, governs no particular mood.
- (4.) Etsi, tāmetsi, even if, although, and quamquam, although, commonly introduce an indicative clause:—ētiamsi is more frequently followed by the subjunctive. In later prose writers, and sometimes in Cicero and Sallust as well as in the poets, quamquam is joined with the subjunctive; as, Quamquam presente Lucullo loquar. Cic. Vi rēgēre patram quamquam possis. Sall. Jug. 3. Filius quamquam Thētidos mārinas Dardāmas turres quāteret. Hor.

REMARK. The imperfect subjunctive with ac si, etc., is used after the present, to denote that in reality the thing is not so, but in that case a hypothetical subjunctive must be supplied; as, Egnätii ren ut tueäre eapue a te pêu, ac si mea nêgôtia essent, i. e. ac pêtêrem, si mea nêgôtia essent, as 1 would pray if, etc. Cic.

3. After antiquam and prinsquam, the imperfect and pluperfect tenses are usually in the subjunctive; the present and perfect may be either in the indicative or subjunctive. The present indicative is commonly used when the action is to be represented as certain, near at hand, or already begun; the subjunctive is used when the thing is still doubtful, and also in general propositions; as,

Ea causa ante mortua est, quam tu natus esses, That cause was dead before you were born. Cic. Avertit equos, priusquam pābūla gustassent Trojæ, Xantumque blbissent. Virg. Priusquam incipias, consulto öpus est, Before you begin there is need of counsel. Sall.

4. (1.) Dum, donec, and quoad, signifying until, are followed by the subjunctive, if they refer to the attainment of an object; as,

Dun hie ventret, lôcum rélinquére nôluit, He was unwilling to leave the place until he (Milo) should come. Cic. Nihit pâto tibi esse ütilius quemo ppériré quond scire possis, quid tibi agendam sit. Id. Ornu têtendit, et duait longe, dône currata coirent inter se căpita. Virg.—In the sense of 'as long as,' these particles take the indicative, but Tacitus joins dônec with the subjunctive even when a simple fact is to be expressed.

- (2.) Dum, while, is commonly used with the indicative present, whatever may be the tense of the principal sentence. Cf. § 259, R. 1, (1.), (a.)
- 5. Quum (cum), when it signifies a relation of time, takes the indicative; when it denotes a connection of thought, the subjunctive; as,

Qui non di fendit injūriam, nēque rēpulsat a suis, quum potest, injuste fācit. Cic. Quum recte nārigāri poterit, tum nīvīges. 1d. Crēdo tum, quum Stellia florēbat ophus et cēpiis, magna artificia fuisse in eā insilla 1d. Quum oto sustineas et tauta nēgotia, peccem, si mōrer tua tempora, Since you are burdened with so many and so important affairs, I should do wrong, if I should occupy your time. Hor. Quum vita sine āmīcis mētus plēna sit, ratio ipsa mōnet āmīcitas compārāre. Cic.

REMARK 1. (a.) The rule for the use of quum may be thus expressed: Quum temporal takes the indicative, quum causal the subjunctive. Hence, when quum is merely a particle of time, with no reference to cause and effect, and not occurring in a historical narrative (see Rem. 2), it may be joined with any tense of the indicative. But when it is employed to express the relation of cause and effect, or has the meaning of 'though' or 'although,' it is joined with the subjunctive (b.) Quum, relating to time, is commonly translated when, while, or after; referring to a train of though, it is signifies as, since, though or although, because; but may often be translated when.

REM. 2. In narration, quum, even when it relates to time, is joined with the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive, when a historical perfect stands in the principal clause; as,

Gracchus, quum rem illam in rēlīgionem p pālo rēnisse sentīret, ad sēnātum rētūlit. Cic. Alexander, quum intērēmisset Clitum, vix mānus a se abstinuit. Id.

Note. Quam temporal, when it expresses an action frequently repeated, may be joined with the pluperfect indicative, and the apodosis then contains the imperfect; as, Quum autem vir esse coeperat, dabat se lubbri. Cic. Quum rosam viderat, tum incipère ver arbitrabatur. Id. Cf. § 264, 12.

REM. 3. Quam in the sense of 'while' is joined with the perfect and imperfect indicative, often with the addition of interea or interim, to express simultaneous occurrences; as, Citidus cript magman succeptating fractum, quam omnes prope and voce, in eo ipso vos spem habitaros csse, dixistis. Cic. Cadebatur virgis in médio fóro Messānæ cīvis Rōmānus, jūdīces, quum interea nulla rox ália istius mīsēri audiēbātur, nīsi hæc: cīvis Rōmānus sum. Id.

REM. 4. Quum, for the most part preceded by an adverb, as, fam, nondum, vix, egre, or joined with repeate or subito is followed by the indicative, especially by the present indicative, to express the beginning of an action. In the cases mentioned in this and the preceding remark, the historians also use quum with the distorical infinitive.

For the subjunctive after si and its compounds, see § 261.

#### C. ADJECTIVE CLAUSES.

### SUBJUNCTIVE AFTER QUI.

- § 264. Relatives require the subjunctive, when the clauses connected by them express merely a conception; as, for example, a consequence, an innate quality, a cause, motive, or purpose.
- (a.) When the relative qui, in a clause denoting a result of the character or quality of something specified in the antecedent clause, follows a demonstrative, and is equivalent to ut with a personal or demonstrative pronoun, it takes the subjunctive.

Note. The demonstratives after which qni takes the subjunctive, are tam with an adjective, tantus, tālis, ejusmödi, hajusmödi, and is, ille, iste, and hic in the sense of tālis; as,

Quis est tum Lyncius, qui in tunis tinebris nihil offendat? i. c. ut ille in tantis, etc., Who is so quick-sighted, that he would not stumble, (or, as not to sumble,) in such durkness. Cic. T.lem te esse ôportet, qui ab impiorum cirium sòciò-tâte signugas; i. c. ut tu, etc. Id. At ea juit legatio Octàvii, in qua priviuli suspiciu nou sabesset, i. c. ut in ed. Il. Nec tâmen êgo sum ille ferreus, qui frattis cărissimi merive non movear, i. e. ut êgo non movear. Id. Non sămus ii, quilus nhili vêrum esse videătur, i. e. ut nobis nhili, etc. Id. Nulla gens tan fern est, cūjus mentem non imburit dorum opinio, i. e. ut rijus mentem, etc. Id.

(b.) Sometimes the demonstrative word is only implied; as,

Res parra dieta, sed que stàdiis in magnum certimen excessèrit, i. e. talis que.... of such a kind that it issued in a violent contest. Cic. Nane die s'alquid, quod ad rem pertineat, i. e. tâle at id, etc. 1d. So quis sum, for num tâlis sum; as, Quis sum, câjus unres ledi nêfas sit? Sen.—In like manner, also, a demonstrative denoting a character or quality, is implied in the examples included in the following rule:—.

2. When the relative is equivalent to quamquam is, etsi is, or dum-modo is, it takes the subjunctive; as,

Laco, consilii quamvis ėgrėgii, quod non ipse afferret, inimicus, Laco, an opponent of any mea-ure, however excellent, provided he did not himself propose it. Tac. Tu aquam a pāmice postālas, qui ipsus sītiat. Plaut. Nikil mõlestum, quod non dēsīdī res, i. e. dammõio id. Cic.

3. Quod, in restrictive clauses, takes the subjunctive; as,

Quod sciam, as far as I know; quod měminěrim, as far as I recollect; quod ěgo intelligam; quod intelliga posit; quod conjectürā prôcidēri posit; quod sakā fide possim; quod commodo tuo fid, etc.—Quidem is sometimes added to the relative in such sentences. Quod sine molestiá tuā fint, So far as it can be done without troubling you. Cic. In the phrases quantum possum, quantum ēgo perspēcia, on the other hand, the indicative is used.

4. A relative clause, after the comparative followed by quam, takes the subjunctive; as,

Mājor sum, quam cui possit fortūna nōcēre, i. e. quam ut mihi, etc., I am too great for fortune to be able to injure me. Ovid. Audītā rōce praconis mājus gaudium fuit, quam quod ūnīversum hōmīnes capērent, Upon the herald's voice being heard, the joy was too great for the people to contain. Liv.

REMARK 1. The clause annexed by quam qui implies an inherent quality, or a consequence; so that quam qui is equivalent to quam ut, which also sometimes occurs. Sometimes the subjunctive follows quam even without a relative pronoun; as, In his literis longior fui, quam aut vellem, ant quam me pūtāvi fore:—and so frequently with the verbs welle and posse.

5. A relative clause expressing a purpose, aim, or motive, and equivalent to ut with a personal or demonstrative pronoun, takes the subjunctive; as,

Lückdemönii liqülos Athênas misirunt, qui eum absentem acctisürent; i.e. ut illi eum mecüsürent, The Lacedemoniaus sent ambassadors to Athens to accuse him in his absence. Nep. Gesar èquitătum omnem premitită, qui videant, quas in pretes iter faciunt. Caes. Sunt autem multi, qui cripiunt ălius, quod âliis largiantur. Cie. Assidue répétant, quas perlant, Beldes undes. Ovid.

Rem. 2. So also with relative adverbs; as, Lampsācum ei (Thēmistocli) rex dömīrat, unde vinum sūmēret, i. e. ex quā or ut inde, etc. Nep. Sāper tābernācidum rēgis, unde ab omnībus conspīci posset, imāgo sõlis crystallo inclūsa fulgēbat. Curt.

 A relative clause with the subjunctive after certain indefinite general expressions, specifies the circumstances which characterize the individual or class indefinitely referred to in the leading clause; as.

Fu@runt eā tempestāte, qui dicerent, There were at that time some who said. Sail. Erant, quibus appētentior fāmæ, vilērētur, There were those to whom he appeared too desirous of fame. Tac. Sunt, qui censeant, āna ānimum et corpus o cidēre. Cic. Erant, qui existināri velint. Id. Si quis erit, qui perpētam brātionem desht eret, aliei a actione audiet. Id. Venient legiomes, que nequæ me noultum neque te impiantum pātiantur. Tac. So after est followed by quod, in the sense of 'there is reason why'; as, Est quod gaudeas, You have cause to rejoice. Plaut. Est quod visam dōmam. Id. Si est quod dēsit, ne beātus quidem est. Cic.

Note 1. The expressions included in the rule are est, sunt, adest, presto sunt, existent, ecoriuntur, inceniuntur, reperiuntur, (scil. hominis); si quis est, tempus fuit, tempus venit, etc.

REM. 3. The same construction occurs with relative particles used indefinitely; as, Est unde bace frant. Si est culpum ut Artipho in se admisérit, If it chance that, etc. Ter. Est ubi id isto modo valeat. Cic. So est cur and est ut in the sense of est cur; as, Ille érat, ut odisset defensorem siduis mea, i. e. he had reason to hate. Cic. Non est igitur ut mirandum sit, There is no occasion for wondering. Id.

Rem. 4. The above and similar expressions are followed by the subjunctive only when they are indefinite. Hence, after sunt quidom, sunt monualli, sunt multi, etc., when referring to definite persons, the relative takes the indicative; as, Sant viriliones questlan, quas Menocrito dabo. Cic.

REM. 5. The indicative is sometimes, though rarely, used after sunt mil, even when taken indefinitely, especially in the poets; as, Sunt, quos jūvat. Hor. Sunt qui ita dicunt. Sull.

 A relative clause after a general negative, or an interrogative expression implying a negative, takes the subjunctive; as, Nomo est, qui haud intelligat, There is no one who does not understand. Cic. Nulla res est, quæ perferre possit continuum libbrem, There is nothing which can endure perpetual labor. Quint. Nulla pars est corporis, quæ non sit minor. Id. Nihil est, quod tam misèros fàciat, quam impiètas et scelus. Cic. In fore vix dècimus quisque est, qui ipsus sèse nocat. Plaut. Quis est, qui atilla figiat? Who is there that shuns what is useful? Cic. Quæ lutebra est, in quam non intent mêtus mortis? Sen. Quid dulcius quam habère, quicum omnia audeus sic loqui ut b'eum? Cic. (See respecting this use of the indefinite quicum rather than the definite quòcum, 4136, R. 1.) An est quisquam, qui hoc ignòret? Is there any one who is ignorant of this? Id. Numquid est midi, quod non dixeris? Ter.

Note 2. General negatives are nêmo, nulus, nthil, sinus non, alius non, non quisquan, rix ullus, nec ullus, etc., with est: vix with an ordinal and quisque; nêgo esse quemuuam, etc. Interrogative expressions implying a negative, are quis, quid; qui, que, quod; quantus, ster. eequis, numquis, an quisquam, an aliquis, quösus quisque, quostus, etc., with est? quot, quan multi, etc., with sunt?

Nort 3. The same construction is used after non est, nikil est, quid est, numquid est, etc., followed by quod, cur, quöre, or quamobrem, and denoting 'there is no reason why,' 'what cause is there?' 'is there any reason?' as, Quod timeas, non est, There is no reason why yon should fear. Ovid. Nikil est, quod adventum nostrum pertlinescas. Cic. Quid est, quod de jus civitäte dubites? Id. Quæris a me, quid eyo Cătlinam metuam. Nikil, et cărăvi ne quis metuêret. Quid est, cur virtus ipsa per se non efficial bediest Id.—So after non hôbe, or nikil habeo; as, Non hâbeo, quod te accūsem. Cic. Nik hâbeo, quod âgam, I have nothing to do. Hor. Nikil hâbeo, quod ad te scribam. Cic. So without a negative, De quibus habeo ipse, quid sentiam. Id. Causa or, with quid and nikil, causa, cur metuêret. Id. Quid êrat causa, cur metuêret. Id. Quid êrat causa, cur metuêret.

Note 4. (a.) The relative clause takes the subjunctive after the expressions included in this and the last rule, only when it expresses the character or quality of the subject of the antecedent clause; and the relative, as in the preceding cases of the relative with the subjunctive, is equivalent to a personal of emonstrative pronoun with ut; as, Nome est, qui ascaid, There is no one who is ignorant, i. e. no one is ignorant. Cic. So, Sunt, qui hoc carpant, There are some who blame this, i. e. some blame this. Vell.

(b.) If the relative clause is to be construed as a part of the logical subject it does not require the subjunctive; as, Nihil stibile est, quod infidum est Nothing which is faithless is firm. Cic.

8. (1.) A relative clause expressing the reason of what goes before, takes the subjunctive; as,

Peccărisse mlhi rideor, qui a te discessērim, I think I did wrong in leaving you. Cic. Inertiam accăsas âdolescentium, qui istam artem non ediscant, You blaune the idleness of the young men, because they do not learn that art. Id. O fortinăte âdolescens, qui lue cirtătis Hömèrum pracônem invênêris!—in having found. Id. Cânimius fuit mirifică cigilantiă, qui suo tôto consălătu somnum non vidêrit,—since, etc. Id.

(2.) Sometimes, instead of qui alone, ut qui, quippe qui, or utpote qui, is used, generally with the subjunctive; as,

Convivia cum patre non inibat, quippe qui ne in oppidum quidem nisi perrăro venisset. Cic. Neque Antônius procul überat, utpôte qui magno exercitu sequeretur. Sall. But sometimes with the indicative in Sallust and Livy; as, Quippe qui omniu vicerat. Sall.

9. After dignus, indignus, aptus, and ĭdōneus, a relative clause takes the subjunctive; as,

Vidētur, qui aliquando impēret, dignus esse, He seems to be worthy at some time to command. Cic. Rustici nostri quum fidem alicijus bonitātemque laudant, dignum esse accunt, quieum in tēmebris mices. Al. Nulla videbātur appro per-

sona, quæ de ætāte löquĕrētur. Id. Pompeius īdoneus non est, qui impetret. Id. El rem īdoneam, de quā quærātur, et homines dignos, quibuscum dissērātur, putant. Id.

Note 5. If the relative clause does not express that of which the person or thing denoted by the antecedent is worthy, its construction is not influenced by this rule. Thus, Quis servus libertate dignus fuit, cui nostra sălus căra non esset? The subjunctive is here used according to No. 7 of this section.

Note 6. The infinitive frequently follows these adjectives in poetry, though rarely in prose; as, Et puer juse full cantari digmus. Virg.:—and sometimes ut; as, Eros digmus, ut habères integram mānum. Quint.

10. A relative clause, after ūnus, sōlus, prīmus, etc., restricting the affirmation to a particular subject, takes the subjunctive; as,

Hace est una contentio, quae adhuc permanserit, This is the only dispute which has remained till this time. Cic. Voluptas est sola, quae nos vocet ad se, et alliceat suapte natura, Pleasure is the only thing that, by its own nature, invites and allures us to itself. Id.

- 11. When the relative refers to a dependent clause, it often takes the subjunctive. See § 266.
- 12. The imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive are used in narration after relative pronouns and adverbs, when a repeated action is spoken of; as,

Semper hābtī sunt fortissīmi, qui sumnam impērii pētrentur, Those were always accounted the bravest, who obtained the supreme dominion. Nep.
Quemeumque lictor jussu considis prehendisset, tribūnas mitti jūbēbat. Liv.
Ut quisque maxīme labūrīret lbens, aut ipse occurrebat, aut dilguos mittibat. So
after si quis or qui; as, Si qui rem molitiosius gessisset, dečicus existinābant.
Cic. Quotiens süper tāli nēpotio consultāret, ēditā domās parte tālbātur. Tac.
Nec quisquom Pyrrhum, quā tūlisset impētum, sustifiere võitut.—It is sometimes
found in like manner after quum, ūbi, ut, and si when used in the sense of
quum, when repeated actions are spoken of; as, ld lībi disisset, hostom in fines
eõrum ēmittebat. Liv. Sin Nāmidor prājuus accessissent, ibi vēro virtātem ostendēre. Sall. Sometimes even the present subjunctive is so used when emploved as an aorist to express things which have happened repeatedly, and
still happen (see § 145, I. 2.); as, Ubi de magnā virtāte et gloviā bōnōrum mēmōres, quae sībi quisque, etc. Sall.

Nore 7. This is called the indefinits subjunctive, or subjunctive of generality, inasmuch as the action is not referred to a distinct, individual case. The indicative, however, is used in such cases more frequently than the subjunctive.

# SUBJUNCTIVE IN INDIRECT QUESTIONS.

§ 265. Dependent clauses, containing an indirect question, take the subjunctive.

Note 1. A question is indirect when its substance is stated in a dependent clause without the interrogative form. Indirect questions generally dopend upon those verbs and expressions which commonly take after them the accusa-

tive with the infinitive. Cf. § 272. Thus:-

Quālis sit animus, ipse ānimus nesid, The mind itself knows not what the mind is. Cic. Crēdtile von est, quantum scribam, It is incredible how much I write. Id. Quis ego sim, me rogime? Do you ask me who I am? Plaut. Ad te quid scribam nescio. Cic. Nec quid scribam habeo, Nor have I any thing to write. Id. Dôce me, this int dit, Inform me where the gods are. Id. Incertum est, quo te loco more exspected. Sen. Ep. Quam pridem sthi hereditas vēnisset, doct. 14. Numc acelpe, quare destpiant comes. Hor. Id utum dit sentiant, an

vēro sīmălent, tu intelliges. Cic. Quæro, num tu sēnātui causom tuam permittas. Id. Vides, ut altō stet nive candidum Sōracte. Hor. Nescit, vitāne fruātur, an sit āpnd mūnes. Ovid.

 Note 2. All interrogatives whether adjectives, pronouns, or partions; as,

Quantus, quālis, quöt, quötus, quötuplex, äter; quis, qui, cūjas; ŭbi, quō, unde, quā, quosundu, quamdulum, quampridem, quite, cur, quāre, quamborem, quemadmodum, quòmbodo, ut, quam, quantojber, an, ne, num, utrum, anne, annon.

REMARK 1. The indicative is frequently used in dependent questions, especially in Terence and Plautus and occasionally in later poets; as, Vide ārāritia quid fācit. Ter. So Virg. Ecl. 5, 7. In the best prose writers the indicative generally indicates that the question is direct, or that the sentence is not a question; as, Querrimus ābi mādēficium est, Let us seek there, where the crime actually is. Cic. Nihil est admīrābilius, quam quōmodo ālle mortem fīlā talit.

REM. 2. In double questions, 'whether—or,' the first may be introduced by attum, or the enclitic  $n_{\rm e}$ , or without an interrogative particle. Hence there are four forms of double questions,—1. utrum (or utrum  $n_{\rm e}$ ),— $n_{\rm e}$ . 2. utrum,— $n_{\rm e}$  (anne). 3.  $-n_{\rm e}$ , — $n_{\rm e}$ . 4.  $-n_{\rm e}$ , — $-n_{\rm e}$  is a Multum interest, utrum thus imminiatur, an sulus deseratin. Cie. The interrogative particle utrum is not used in a single question; and num— $n_{\rm e}$  is used only in direct questions. The English' or not 'in the second part, which is used without a verb, is expressed in Latin by emmo or necese, either with or without a verb; but neces occurs only in indirect questions; as, Dii atrum sint, neces sint, queritur. Cie.—Ne— $n_{\rm e}$ ,  $n_{\rm e}$ — $n_{\rm e}$ ,  $n_{\rm e}$ — $n_{\rm e}$ ,  $n_{\rm e}$ — $n_{\rm e}$ , or num—num scarcely occur except in poetical or unclassical language.

REM. 3. Dūbito, dūbium est, or incertum est an, drībēro or hæsite an, und especially haad suo an, nescio an, though implying some doubt, have generally a sense almost affirmative. Compare § 198, 11, R. (e.)

REM 4. Nescio quis, used nearly in the sense of àliquis, does not influence the mood of the following verb; as, Sed cõsu nescio quo in ea tempòra utas nostra incluit. Cic. Lâ us, nescio quo cõsu, nocturno tempòre incensus est. Nep. So, also, nescio quòmòdo, 'somehow' or 'in some way'; as, Sed nescio quòmòdo, 'somehow' or 'in some way'; as, Sed nescio quòmòdo, inheret in neutibus quasi angărium. Cic. In like manner mirum quant quantum, uniquantum, unimum quantum, unt the like, when united to express only one idea, do not affect the mood of the verb; as, Sides in dicendo minium quantum valent,—very much. Cic.

### SUBJUNCTIVE IN INSERTED CLAUSES.

§ **266.** 1. When a dependent proposition containing either an accusative with the infinitive, or a verb in the subjunctive, has a clause connected with it, as an *essential part*, either by a relative, a relative adverb, or a conjunction, the verb of the latter clause is put in the subjunctive; as,

Quid enim pôtest esse tam perspicuam, quam esse âltquod nûmen, quo hac rêgantur? For what can be so clear as, that there is some divinity by whom
these things are governed? Cic. Here the thing which is stated to be clear is,
not merely esse âltquod nûmen, that there is a god, but also that the world is
governed by him. Hence the latter clause, quo hac régardur is an essential part
of the general proposition. Illud sic fêre diffuiri solet, dic orum id esse, quod
consentâneum sit hômhirs excellentus. Id. Audivin quid sit, quod Epicarum non
prôbes, I shall hear why it is that you do not approve of Epicurus Id Jussit
ut, que venissent, nûres Eubocam pêterent. Liv.

REMARK I. Hence the subjunctive is used in general sentences, in which the class of things mentioned exists only as a conception or idea, while thindividual thing has a real existence; as, Est fraim ulciscendi et panienali modus, adque hand scio an sălis sit eum qui lăcessierit injūriae suae panitēre, i. e. each individual offender of the class.

REM. 2. When the principal proposition contains a subjunctive denoting a result, after ita, tom, idlis, etc., the inserted clause has the indicative; as, Asia viro tam opima est et fertilis, ut—multitudine eõrum rērum, quæ exportantur, facile omnibus terris anticellul. Cic. The same is the case in definitions; as, Videre tglitur oportet, que sint concénicatia cum ipso negotio, hoc est, quæ do re séptirare non possunt. Cic.—So also explanatory clauses, especially circumicutions introduced by a relative pronoun, are sometimes found with the indicative; as, Itâque tile Mürius item eximic L. Plôtium dilexit, cājus ingênio pătabut ea, quæ gessérat, posse celebrāri. Cic.

Norm. To this rule belongs the construction of the bratio obliqua, 'indirect discourse,' or 'reported speech,' in which the language of another is presented, not as it was conceived or expressed by him, but in the third person. Thus, Cæsar said, '1 came, I saw, I conquered,' is direct,—Cæsar said, that 'he came, saw, and conquered,' is indirect discourse.

2. In the *ōrātio oblīqua*, the main proposition is expressed by the accusative with the infinitive; and dependent clauses connected with it by relatives and particles, take the subjunctive.

Thus, Cicero and Quintilian, in quoting the language of Marcus Antonius, make use, the former of the pratio directa, the latter of the bratio bliqua;—Antônius inquit, 'Ars edirum rērum est, quae sciuntur', Antonius says, 'Art belongs to those things which are known.' Cic. Antônius inquit, artem edrum rērum esse, quæ sciantur, Antonius says, that 'art belongs to those things which are known.' Quint.

So, Socrátes dicere solibat, omnes, in eo quod scirent, sátis esse élloquentes, Socrates was accustomed to say, that 'all were sufficiently eloquent in that which they understood? Cic. Cito mirâri se aichat, quod non ridêret hâruspex, hâruspicem quum vidissest. Id. N'equa Jus esse, qui miles non sit, puqnâre cum hoste. Id. Indignâbantur thi esse impérium, ubi non esset libertas. Liv. Hâque Alheinenses,

quod honestum non esset, id ne utile quidem (esse) putaverunt. Cic.

REMARK 1. (a.) When the subjunctive would be necessary in the *ōrātic directa*, to denote liberty, power, etc., the same remains in the *ōrātic obliqua*, and is not changed into the infinitive with an accusative; as, Ad hec Arioristus respondit, quam rellet, congrederetur, To this Ariovistus replied, that 'he might meet him when he pleased.' Cass. In the *ōrātio directa*, this would be congreditivis.

(b.) The imperative in the \(\tilde{\sigma}\) value (\directa\) is, in the \(\tilde{\sigma}\) value obliqua, changed into the subjunctive; as, he mith \(\directa\) divite, which in the \(\tilde{\sigma}\) value obliqua is, hoc sibi \(\directa\) dicent, or hoc sibi \(\directa\) divitent, according to the tense of the leading verb.

(c.) So also direct questions addressed to the second person, when changed from direct to indirect speech, become subjunctives. Liv. 6, 37.—But such questions when not addressed to the second person are expressed in the brādio obliqua by the accusative with the infinitive; as when in direct speech we say, Etiams vétéris contâmities oblivisis vétim, num possum étiam resentain injuritarum—mémoriam dépônère? The brâtio obliqua will be, Gesar respondit (histor, perf.)—si véteris contâmitiles oblivisis vétel, num étiam récentaim viginirarum—mémoriam dépônère posse? Cas. Very rarely the accusative with the infinitive is found in a question of the second person, as in Liv. 6, 17: but the subjunctive in questions of the third person is les uncommon in Casar; as, Quis pati posset? for quem pâti posse? Quis hoc sibi persuadéret? for quem sibi persuasarum? See § 273, 3.

REM. 2. A writer may state his own past words or thoughts in *ōrātio obliqua*, either preserving the first person, or adopting the third.

REM. 3. When the inserted clause contains the words or sentiments of the subject of the leading clause, all references to him are regularly expressed by the reflexives sai and saus; as, Hue nõi essităte conctus domino năvis qui sit âpērā, multa pollicens, si se conservassel. Nep. And this is equally true when the word to which the pronoun refers is not in reality the grammatical subject, provided it may still be conceived as such; as, Quam ei in suspicionem vēnissel, âdquid an ēpistōla de se esse scriptum. Nep.; for the words, quam ei in suspicionem vēnissel, are equivalent to quam suspicārētur. See § 208, (1.)

REM. 4. The tenses to be used in changing the ōrātio directa into the obliqua, depend on the tense of the verb which introduces the quotation, according to the rule, § 258. But when the future perfect would be used in the direct, the pluperfect is necessary in the oblique form; but the perfect is used after the

present, perfect definite, or future.

REM. 5. When the connected clause contains merely a descriptive circumstance, or expresses what is independent of the sentiment of the preceding clause, it takes the indicative; as, Impérairá Alexander Lijsippo, ut còrum equatum, qui àpud Grancum cividivant, facèret statuas, Alexander ordered Lysippus to make statues of those horsemen who had fallen at the Granicus. Sometimes, in other cases, when it is evident from the sense, that the connected clause is an essential part of the proposition, the indicative is used, to avoid giving the appearance of contingency to the sentence.

3. A clause connected to another by a relative or causal conjunction, takes the subjunctive, (whatever be the mood of the preceding verb.) when it contains not the sentiment or allegation of the writer, but that of some other person alluded to; as,

Socrates accasatus est, quod corrumpèret juventutem, Socrates was accused of corrupting the youth, lit., because (as was alleged) he corrupted the youth. Deum invocabant, cujus ad solenne veinissent, They invoked the god, to whose solemnities they had come. Liv. Quos viceris anicos this esse cave crèdas, Do not believe that those whom you have conquered are your friends. Here, in the first example, the charge of corrupting the youth is not made by the writer, but by the accusers of Socrates. So, in the second example, the worshippers allege that they have come to attend upon the solemnities of the god. In the last, it is implied by the use of the subjunctive mood, that the belief spoken of is that of the person addressed —puos recisti would have been merely an addition of the speaker, by means of which he would have designated the persons whose friendship he was speaking of; and, in general, the indicative, in such sentences, is employed in those statements which are independent of the sentiments of the person, to whose thoughts or words allusion is made. Cf. supra 2, If. 5.

REMARK. In the preceding cases, it is not directly said that the sentiments are those of another than the writer. In Cicero, however, the words dico, puto, arbitror, and the like, are often construed in a similar manner, although, properly speaking, not these verbs, but those in the clauses dependent on them, should be in the subjunctive; as, Quam ēnius, Hannbūlds permissa, existed de castris, rēdiit paulo post, quod se oblitum nescio quod diceret,...because (as) he suid, he had forgotten something. Cic. Ab Athrinensibus, locum sēpultūra intra urbem ut darent, impetrāre non potui, quod rēlijone se impediri dicerent. In

# IMPERATIVE MOOD.

\$ 267. The imperative mood is used to express a command, wish, advice, or exhortation; as,

Nosee le, Know thyself. Cic. Equam memento servare mentem, Remember to preserve an unruffled mind. Hor. Huc ades, Come hither. Virg. Pasce capellus, et pôtum pastus age, et inter agendum occursare capro caveto. Id.

- (1.) The imperative present denotes that an action is to be performed directly or at once; as, lege, read; môrêre, die; or that a state or condition is to continue; as, rive, live.
- (2.) The imperative future denotes that something is to be done, as soon as something else has taken place; as, Quum valétudim tuæ consuluéris, tum consulto nâvigătiom. Cic. Prius audite paucis; quod quum dizero, si plicuerit, fâcticte. Ter. The precedent event is often to be supplied by the mind. Sometimes, especially in poetry, the imperative present is used for the imperative future, and, on the other hand, scito and scitôte, from scio, are used instead of the imperative present, which is wanting.
- (3.) Hence the imperative future is properly used in contracts, laws, and wills; and also in precepts and rules of conduct; as, Rēgio impērio duo sunto, tique consides appellantor, militie summum jus habento, nēmini pārento, illis sākus pôpuli suprima lez esto. Cic. Non sātis est pulchra esse poēmulta, dulcia sunto. Hor. Ignosetlo sepe altēri, umuquam tibi. Syr.

REMARK I. With the imperative, not is expressed by  $n\bar{e}$ , and nor by  $n\bar{e}ve$ ; as,

Ne tanta ănimis assuescite bella. Virg. Ne crede colori. Id. Hominem mortuum in urbe ne sepelito, neve urito. Cic.

Note. Non and néque occur, though rarely, with the imperative; as, Vos quoque non câris aures obvêtde lipillis, nec problete grâves inside vestibus auro. Ovid. But with the subjunctive used for the imperative non and especially nêque are found more frequently. Cf.  $\delta$  260, R.  $\delta$ , (b, )—In Plantus and Terence ne is of common occurrence both with the imperative and with the present subjunctive, and with no difference of meaning; but later poets chiefly use ne with the present subjunctive, and ne with the imperative only when they speak emphatically. In classical prose writers the periphrastic not with the infinitive is preferred.

- REM. 2. The present and perfect subjunctive are often used instead of both tenses of the imperative, to express a command in a milder form, an exhortation, or an entreaty; as, Qui adpiser viram glöriam volet, justitae fungitur officiis. Cic. Quod dibitus, ne faceris. Plin. Ep. See § 260, Il., R. 6. An imperative of the perfect passive is very rarely found; as, At was admontif mostris quoque casibus este. Ovid. Jacta diea esto. Cass. in Suet. But the subjunctive is more common; as, Jacta sit diea. Sometimes also the future indicative; as, Sed valiblis, medgae négôtia videbis, méque dis juvantibus ante brûman exspectablis, instead of vide, vude, exspecta. Cic. Ubi sententiam meam vobis pérégéro, tum quibus cédem placebunt, in deutram partem táciti transibitis, instead of transitôte. Liv. With the future the negative is non. See § 259, R. 1, (4)
- REM. 3. Sometimes, for the simple affirmative imperative, cāra or cārāto ut, fac ut, or fuc alone is used with the subjunctive; as, Cūra ut quam primum veinas, Come as soon as possible. Fuc êridius, Instruct, or Tuke care to instruct. Cic. For the negative imperative fuc ne, cāre ne or cāre alone, with the present or perfect subjunctive is used; but especially nôt with the infinitive; as, Nôti pātāre, Do not suppose. Cic. Cāre existimes, Do not think. Id. Nölte id veile qued non fiêri pôtest, et cāvēte ne spe præsentis pācis perpētuam pācem omittātis. Id.

### INFINITIVE MOOD.

## OF THE TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE.

§ 268. 1. The infinitive partakes of the properties of the noun and verb, just as the participle combines the properties of the adjective and verb. It expresses simply the action or state implied in the verb in an abstract manner, without specifying either person, number, or time, and thus merely indicates whether an action is in progress or completed.

2. The tenses of the infinitive denote respectively an action as present, past, or future, in reference to the time of the verbs with which they are connected; as,

Hoc facere possum, I am able to do this. Cic. Vīdl nostros Intmicos cupero bellum, I saw that our enemies were desiring war. Id. Nec gemere aeria cessibit turtur ab ulmo, Nor shall the turtle dove cease to coo from the lofty elm. Virg.—Victòrem victoe succubuisse queror, I complain that the victor has yielded to the vanquished. Ovid. Se a shibus audisse dicebant, They said that they had heard (it) from the old men. Cic. Audiet cires acuisse ferrum giventus, The youth will hear that the citizens have wheted the sword. Hor.—Negut sies verbum esse factūrum, He declares that he is not about to speak. Cic. Postquam audierat non dätum īri filio uxōrem suo, After he had heard that a wite would not be given to his son. Ter. Semper existimābitis mhil hōrum ros vistros fore, You will always suppose that you are to see none of these things. Cic.

REMARK 1. (a.) The present and perfect infinitives are sometimes called respectively the infinitives of incomplete and of completed action. The present infinitive, however, is conctines used to denote a completed action. This is the usual construction with memini; but in such case the speaker transfers himself to the past, and the expression denotes rather a recollection of the progress than of the completion of the action; as, thee meminid dicerc, I remember my suping this. Cic. Teuerum memini Subma venire, I remember Teueer's coming to Sidon. Virg. So with memoiria time. Cic. Phil. 8, 10. Sorbit also is construed like méminit; as, Cic. Off. 3, 2: and after the same analogy, and for the sake of vivid expression Ciccro says, M. Maximum acceptimus facile cellerc, tacerc, dissimilar, etc., though speaking of things which he had not witnessed himself. So, also, with recordor;—Recordor longe omnibus imum auxierum constituence. Cic. When the action is spoken of simply as a fact, the perfect infinitive is used with memini; as, Meministis me ita distribuisse causum. Cic.

(b.) The passive voice having no simple form for expressing the completed state of suffering nukes use of this combination of the perfect participle with esse; as, dividus esse, to have been loved. When thus combined esse loses its own signification of a continued state, and when this state is to be expressed another infinitive must be chosen; as, Constrictivin jan horum consciential teneri confurationen tuam non vides? Cic. Sometimes, however, when no ambiguity can arise, esse in the usual combination retains its original meaning; as, Apud Philinen est, omnen morem Lacidemoniorum inflammatum esse cupiditate vinculi. 1d. Here inflammatum esse x presses a continued or habitual state—Fuisse with the perfect participle denotes a state completed previous to a certain past time; as, Jude boin onthus esse; sofptiam fuisse rigem solito ictu. Liv.

REM. 2. To express the result of an action rather than its progress, the perfect infinitive is sometimes used instead of the present, especially after saids habeo, saits with est, pulet, contentus sum, mélius érit, vibo or a verb of equivalent meaning; as, Buchatur vates, magnum si pectore possi excussisse deum. Virg. Quum illam n'émo vèlle attigisse. Plin. The poets use the infinitive perfect where we should expect a present; as, Tendentes l'Élion impósuisse Olympo. Hor.

REM. 3. The present infinitive is also sometimes used for the future, especially when the verb has no future; as, Disine fata dehm flecti spirāre, Coase to hope that the fates of the gods will be changed. Virg. Progeniem Trojāno a somņume dūci audūvat. 1d. Cras mihi argenium dare dicit, i. e. se dātārum esse. Ter. Côto afirmat se rīvo ilum non triumphire. Cic.

REM. 4. (a.) The infinitive future active is formed by a combination of the participle future active with esse; as, āmātārus esse; the infinitive future passive by a combination of the supine in um with 'ir'; as, āmātam īri. These future infinitives denote an action or state as continuing. The participle in rus, which properly expresses intention (see § 162, 14), takes also the infinitive fuisse to express a past intention; as, Scio te scriptārum fuisse, I know that

you have had the intention to write, whence it was an easy transition to the sense, 'you would have written,' in conditional sentences, when the condition is not fulfilled. This infinitive is used especially in the apodosis of hypothetical sentences, where in direct speech the pluperfect subjunctive would be used (cf. § 162, 14, R. 3.); as, Etiansi obtemperaset anspicits, idem eventurum fuisse pitto. Cic. In like manner the infinitive future with esse is used in the apodosis of hypothetical sentences instead of the imperfect subjunctive; as, Libertus, nisi juraset, seelus se factirum (esse) arbitrabiur, Id.

(b.) Instead of the future infinitive, in both voices, futurum esse or fore, followed by ut and the subjunctive, is often used; the present and imperfect subjunctive, in such cases, denoting an unfinished, the perfect and phyperfect a finished, future action; as, Numquam pitāci fore, ut supplex ad te vēnīrem, I never supposed (that it would happen) that I should come a suppliant to you. Cic. Suspicor fore, ut infringatur hominum improbitas. Id. Crédobam fore, ut spistolam scripsisses.—So, also, in the passive for a continued state of future suffering the present and imperfect are used; as, Crédo fore, ut épistolam scribātur, and, Crédobam fore, ut épistola scriberêtur. But to express a completed state in future time the perfect participle is employed; as, Quos spêro brêvi tempore têcum copulatos fore. Cic. Quod vidêret nomine pais bellum involutum fore. Id. This construction is necessarily used, when the verb has either no future active participle, or no supine; as, in such case, the regular future infinitive cannot be formed; as, Spêro fore ut sapias.—Fore is found in two passages pleonastically joined with the future participle active, viz. Te ad me fore ventirum. Cic. Att. 5, 21: and Quam sênātus censêret—libenter factūros fore. Liv. 6, 42.

Rem. 5. (a.) The periphrastic infinitive formed by the future active participle with fuise, denotes a future action contingent upon a condition which was not fulfilled; and, in the apodosis of a conditional sentence, corresponds to the pluperfect subjunctive; as, An censes me tantos kibbres susceptūrum fuisse, si sidem frinbus gloriam meam qubbus vitam essem terminātūrus? Do you think that I should have undertaken so great labors if, etc. Cic. Ut perspicuum sit omnibus, nisi tanta acerbitus injarise fuisset, numquam illos in eum locum progressitors fuisses,....that they never would have come into that place. Id.

(b.) Fătürum fuisse with ut and the imperfect subjunctive passive, corresponds to the infinitive fuisse with the future participle active in a conditional proposition; as, Nisi nuncii essent allati, existinăbant plerique fătürum fuisse, ut oppidum ămitteretur,...that the town would have been lost. Cæs.

(c.) The participle future passive cannot be used to form an infinitive future passive, since it always retains the meaning of necessity, and in this sense has three regular infinitives, dimandum esse, dimandum fuisse, and dimandum fore; as, Instire hièmem, aut sub pellibus h\u00e4bendos m\u00e4lites f\u00f3re, aut differendum esse in us\u00e4tem bellim. Liv.

REM. 6. In the apodosis of a conditional sentence, the perfect infinitive, like the past tenses of the indicative, (see § 259, R. 4.), sometimes corresponds to the phiperfect subjunctive: as, (Dixit) sibi vitam filias sai căriorem fuisse, si libère ac pidice virère licitum fuisset, (He said) that the life of his daughter had been dearer to him tham his own, if it had been permitted... Liv. This use of the perfect infinitive is necessary, when the verb has no future participle: as, Equidem Philitem existino, si gènus fivense dicendi tracture roluisset, gràcissime et copiosissime pôtuisse dacère,—would have been able to speak. Cic.

§ 269. The infinitive may be regarded either as a verb or as an abstract noun. (s...) As a verb it is used either indefinitely (§ 143, 4), or with a subject of its own, which is put in the accusative, (§ 239). But the infinitive passize of neuter and sometimes of active verbs, like the third person singular of that voice, may be used impersonally or without a subject; as, Vides toto properari libre, You see a stir is made all along the shore. Virg. See §§ 209, R. 3, (2.), and 239, R. 4. The present infinitive has sometimes, in narration, a subject in the nominative. See § 209, R. 5.

(6.) As a noun, the infinitive either alone or with a subject-accusative, has to cases, the nominative and the accusative, and is accordingly used either as the subject or the object of a verb.

# THE INFINITIVE AS THE SUBJECT OF A VERB.

The infinitive, either with or without a subject-accusative, may be the subject of a verb; as,

Ad rempiblicam pertinet me conservari, It concerns the state that I should be preserved. Cic. Numquam est ātile peccare, To do wrong is never useful. Id. Majus didecu est parta amittere quam comino non pārāvises. Sall. In the first example conservairi with its subject accusative me is the subject of pertinet, and is equivalent to 'my preservation': in the second, peccare is the subject of est ātle. See § 202, 2, and III. R. 2.

REMARK I. A general truth may be expressed by the infinitive without a subject; as, Fáciaus ext vincire cteen Râmânuan, To bind a Roman citizen, or, that one should bind a Roman citizen, is a crime. But in such case the verb esse and verbs denoting to appear, to be considered or called (§ 210, R. 3.), require the noun or adjective of the predicate to agree with the implied subject in the accusative; as, £quam est precedits vintum poscentem reddere rursus. Hor. Altieus maximum estimated question, microrem gratumque cognosci. Nep.

Note. The indefinite pronoun dilquem or dilques may in such cases be supplied, and the same indefiniteness may be expressed by te or ws, cf. § 209, R.7; but it is still more frequently expressed by the infinitive passive. Hence the sentence Fixtuse set cincire civen Rômānum, may also be expressed by Fixtuse set vinciri civem Rômānum. So, Quam vidêrent de cornum cirtate non despērāri. Nep.—The impersonal verbs licet, dēcet, āportet, āpus est, and nēcesse est, when there is no definite subject, are joined with the infinitive active alone; but when there is a subject-accusative, they are connected with the passive construction; as, a ct. licet hac fuere; döcet spēctmen cāpie ex hac re; pass. licet hoc firet, decet spēctmen cāpi.

REM. 2. The infinitive, with or without a subject accusative, is often the subject of a proposition, when the substantive verb with a noun, a neuter and jective, or an impersonal verb forms the predicate. Of this kind are justum, equium, vérisimle, consentáneum, opertum—est, érat, etc., nécesse est, opus est;—appàret, constat, conventi, décet, lect, opuret; tuelligitur, perspicture, etc.; as, Cui verba dare difficile est. Ter. Mendacem mémorem esse opurtet. Quint. Lègem brèvem esse opurtet. Sen. Constat profecto ad solidem cicium inventus esse lèges. Cic. Non énim me hoc jum dicère pédébit. Id. See § 209, R. 3, (6.), (a.)

REM. 3. The infinitive may itself be the subject of an infinitive; as, Audio non licere eniquam in nace capillos deponere. Ter.

REM. 4. The infinitive, with or without a subject accusative, may also be the predicate nominative; as, Impāne quælibet facere til est regem esse. Sall. In this sentence fūcēre is the subject, and rēgem esse is the predicate; for id, which only represents by a kind of apposition the clause impāne quælibet facēre, can be omitted.

REM. 5. When the infinitive esse, (or others of similar meaning, as, firi, civire, citima digire, cidira, divire, etc.), with a predicate adjective (or noun), is joined with kect, such predicate is put in the accusative, if the subject-accusative of the infinitive is expressed, and sometimes, also, when it is omitted, but more frequently, in the latter case, the predicate adjective or noun is attracted to the dative following licet; as, Ut eum licent aulæ tempus considern firit, Auct. ad Her. Medios esse jam non licebit. Cic. Si civi Römäno tect esse Gäditänum. Id.—Licuit énim esse bitios Thémistodi. Id. Mihi negligenti esse non licet. Id. Stik citam filie sua cáriorem fuisse, si libérae ac púdica virre lectum fuisset (scil. ed.) Liv. So also nécesse est with the predicate in the

dative. Vibis nicesse est fortibus viris esse. Liv.—But licet, éportet, and nicesse est are also joined with the subjunctive mood, and bence is derived the construction of licet as a conjunction. See § 263, 2.

# THE INFINITIVE AS THE OBJECT OF A YERB.

§ 270. The infinitive, either with or without a subject-accusative, may be the *object* of a verb; as,

Here vitare copinus, We desire to avoid this. Cic. Points comming non conor attingère, I do not at all attempt to read the poets. Id. Sententiam valère cipièrunt, They desired that the opinion should prevail. Id. Spêro te valère, I hope that you are well. Id.

Norr. The infinitive as the object of a verb supplies the place of the accusative of the thing, and hence many active verbs besides the infinitive take in the active voice an accusative of the person, cf. § 231, B. 3, (6.), and in the passive retain the infinitive; as, Consides jubentur scribere exercitum. Mūros ādire vētīti sunt. Cf. § 234, L.

REMARK 1. The infinitive alone may also depend upon an adjective, and sometimes upon a noun.

(a) It may depend upon relative adjectives, (see § 213, R. 1), which, by the poets, are joined with the infinitive instead of their nanal construction with the genitive of the germud, etc.; as, Coldre nescius. Hor. Artili committee pugnam, Ovid. Chipdius mobriri. Id. Cantine periti Arcides. Virg. Callidas condere furth. Hor. Qualifields impotens spérâre. Id. Satrimas fairère inscius. Varr. Insuctus véra audire. Liv. Certa móri. Virg. Félicior maguère téla. Virg. So, Audax omnia perpéti, Resolute to endure every thing. Hor. Sollers ornāre Cypassis, Skilful to adorn. Ovid. Segnes solère môdom. Hor. Indicilis paapériem páti. Id. Non lenis fâta récluière. Id. See § 213, R. 4, (1). (b.) It may also depend upon adjectives signifying usefulness, finess, etc.,

(b.) It may also depend upon adjectives signifying usefulness, filness, etc., which are sometimes by the poets construed with the infinitive instead of the dative; as, (Tibia) aspirāre et ādesse chōris ērat ūtilis. Hor. Etas mollis et apta rēgi. Ovid. Fons ēlium rīvo dave nomen fadoneus. Hor. Frings consumēru nāti, id. And after dignus and contentus; as, Dignus dmāri. Virg. Cf. § 244.

R. 2. (b.)

(c.) Úpon a noun; as, Tempus est hājus libri făcēre finem, It is time to finish this book. Nep. Iniit con-ilia rêpes tollêre, He devised a plan to destroy the kings. Id. Ea êrat confessio căpat rêrum Rômam esse. Liv. Cūpilo inceseivat Æthiopiam invisere. Curt. Qaibus în ôtio vivere copia êrat. Sult. So, Nec milii sunt vires tăimitos pellere tectis, instead of pellendis intinieis, or ad pellendos intinios. Ovid.

(d) If for the infinitives depending on nonns or adjectives other nonns were substituted, these last would be put in the genitive, dative, or ablative; and hence such infinitives may perhaps be properly regarded as exceptions to the rule, that the infinitive has but two cases, the nominative and the accusative.

REM. 2. (a.) The infinitive with the accusative sometimes stands unconnected, especially in exchanations and indignant interrogations, where *cridibile* est? or virunae est? may be supplied; as, Mine incepte desistère victum? That I, vanquished, should desist from my undertaking? Virg. He miscrum! te in tartias arranacts propher me incidisse! Cic.—But ut, also, with the subjunctive, either with or without an interrogative particle, may be used to express a question with indignation; as, Eine (sed. Dutri) ego ut alverser? Liv. Ta ut uniquam te corrigus? Cic. Jadicio ut deduc decimanum perséquatur? Id.; where jārir pôtes? may be supplied.

(b) So, in the ôrâtio obliqua, the words signifying said, saying, etc., are often omitted, or implied in a preceding verto or phrase; as, ld fâcile effici posse, soil, dixil. Nep. Quem signam dătărum făujientibus? Out.

Rem. 3. The infinitive is sometimes to be supplied; and esse and fuisse with a predicate adjective, and also in the compound forms of the infinitive, both active and passive, are commonly omitted, especially after verbs of saying, thinking, knowing, and pervicing; as, Tos cognéri fortes. Sall. Quem pulsam mémérate. Tac.—So, also, with the infinitive perfect passive when depending on rôlo, nôlo, cápio, and ôportet; as, Abblescent mêrem gestum éportuit. Ter. Guod jum pridem factum ôportuit. Cic.—Sometimes in a relative clause an infinitive is to be supplied from the finite verb of the main proposition; as, Quos coluit onness interfect, seil. interfecter. Ne illum quidem conséquentum, que un palant, grétium; i. e. queun se conséculiures patant. Cic.

# THE INFINITIVE WITHOUT A SUBJECT-ACCUSATIVE.

§ 271. The infinitive, without a subject-accusative, is used after verbs denoting obility, obligation, intention or endeavor; after verbs signifying to begin, continue, ccase, abstain, dare, fear, hesitate, or be wont; and after the passive of verbs of saying, believing, reckoning, etc.

Nors. 1. To these classes belong possum, queo, nêqueo, vâleo, dêbeo; căro, cogreo, deterno, stâno, constituo, instluo, paio: cônor, nitur, tendo, contendo, tendo, mâtiro, prăpêro, aggrēdior, persêvêro, :—capi, invisto, pergo, dêsino, dêsisto, intermitto, parco, eviso; sideo, assureso, consueso, instesso; audeo, vêror, mâtiro, reformito, timeo, nerro, dibito:—nudior, cetdar, existimor, fêror, nêgor, nuntior, pêrhibeor, pûtor, trâdor, pibeor, vileor, and côgor.

Note 2. When the preceding verbs are joined with esse, hibber, judicāri, etd.ri, etc., the predicate noun or adjective is put in the nominative; as, Solet tristis ridēri; aude sāpiens esse; eagin tulti nobestus esse; debes esse diligens; pētest liber esse; and so also mērētur, scil, didicit liber esse.

Note 3. The poets, in imitation of the Greeks, use the infinitive after flag, an fer, care, parce, mémento; parce, réflagio, quero, argeo, làbôro, ômo, gaudeo, flaro, culleo, samo, millo, rémito, patior, jaro, conjaro, pagno, millo, and some other verbs, especially to denote a wish or purpose; as, latvoit tidère. Ter. Non te frangère persèquor. Hor. Non pôpilàre pénates véntmus. Virg. In this construction, the poets are sometimes imitated by the later prose writers.

REMARK 1. Many of the verbs above enumerated, instead of the infinitive, may be followed by the subjunctive with ut, ne, etc.; and with some of them this is the regular construction; as, Scattentium ne diceret, recessivit. Cic.

Rem. 2. The passives dicor, trador, fivor, narror, riperior, existmor, tideor, etc., may either be used personally, with the infinitive alone, or impersonally followed by the accusative with the infinitive. Thus we may say, Maler Pausainie et tempére vixisse dicitur, or, Dictur et tempére mâtirem Pausainie vixisse, The mother of Pausainie said to have been living...or, it is said that the mother of Pausainias was living... Xep. The former construction is more common especially with videor, see § 272, R. 6; but the latter is frequent with mantiatur, and very common with the compound tenses, tràditum est, etc., and with the participle future pussive; as, crèdendum est, tect, as, Quôrum núminem tilem fusse crèdendum, etc. Cic.

REM. 3. The infinitive without a subject is used after a verb, only when it denotes an action or state of the subject of that verb.

Rem. 4. The verbs to wish or desire, vilo, nolo, malo; cōpio, opto, stădeo, have a twofold construction:—the infinitive without a subject-accusative is used after them, when the subject remains the same; and when followed by esse, hābēri, etc., the predicate-noun or adjective is in the nominative;—but the accusative with the infinitive is used when the subject is changed, or when a reflexive pronoun of the same person follows. We say, therefore, rôle eraditus fièri, and on the other hand, vôlo te êraditum fièri, and vôlo me cruditum fièri. So, Vôlo is esse, quem tu me esse volustat. Cic. Côpio me esse climentem, cánio—

me non dissolitum videri. Id.; or, omitting the prenoun, căpio esse clemens nec dissolitus cikri.—Omnis homines qui sese student præsture ccieris animālibus, etc. Sall.

Note 4. Vido is used with the present infinitive passive; as, Me āmāri robo, I wish to be beloved; her vēlim intelliņi, I wish this to be understood; and also with the infinitive perfect passive to denote the eager desire that something should be instantly accomplished; as, Lighti quad irant appellāti siperbius, Cirinthum prives vertir—exstinctum csee volutirum. Cic.; but it occurs most frequently with the omission of esse; as, hee factum volo; mane illos commontes velim: so, patriom exstinctum cipit.

NOTE 5. The prominative with the infinitive after verbs of saying, perceiving, etc. (§ 272), is rure even in poetry, and is an imitation of the Greek idiom, which requires the nominative with the infinitive when the same subject remains; as, Phásilus ille, quem ridčits, hospites, ait finisse nárium celerrimus. Catull. Quia rétálit Ajax esse Jóxis népos, instead of se esse Jóxis népôtem. Ovid. Sensit médios délapsus in hostes, instead of se délapsum sess. Virg.

# THE INFINITIVE WITH A SUBJECT-ACCUSATIVE.

§ 272. The infinitive with a subject-accusative follows verbs of saying, thinking, knowing, perceiving, and the like; as,

Videbat, id non posse fiéri, He saw that that could not be done. Nep. Sentit ammus, se suá vi, non állina, mowiri. Cic. Andivi te rénire. Me in éjus potestate dixi fore. Id. Affirmant militum juvére ántimos. Liv. Nope venit ad aures meas, te istud nimis crébre dievre. Cic. Eum pagnam ad Pérüsiam pagnatam (esse), quidam auctores sunt. Liv.

Nore 1. This rule includes all such verbe and plunses as denote the exercise of the external senses and intellectual faculties, or the communication of thought to others; as, audio, video, sentio, animadeveto, cognosco, intelligo, percipio, disco, scio, secsio, execto, despeto, cigito, indico, evideo, action, pinto, pinno, disco, scion, memini, recordor, obliviscor, apinio est, spes est, etc.;—dico, trado, prodo, serbo, refero, narro, munic, confirmo, nico, ostendo, indico, disco, circitiem facio, demonsto, Parhibeo, promitto, politren, spondeo, etc.; but with most of these a different construction often occurs. See § 273.

Note 2. The propositions, whose subjects are thus put in the accusative and their werbs in the infinitive, are those which are directly dependent on the verts of saying and perceiving. Respecting the clauses inserted in such dependent propositions, see 4 266, 1.

NOTE 3. (a.) When a relative clause inserted in a proposition containing the accusative with the infinitive, has the same verb as the proposition in which it is inserted, but such verb is not repeated, the norm which is the subject of the relative clause is also put by attraction in the accusative; as, Te suppiore sixden ribus, quibus me ipsum, commèrci. If the verb is expressed we must say, eisden ribus commèrcii, quibus (ego) ipse commèveor. So, also, in inserted relative clauses where the verb, if expressed, would be in the subjunctive, (see § 266, 2.); as, (Verres) aibut se tradidem estimasse, quanti Sacerdotem, for quanti Sicerdos estimasset. Cic. Conflictur se in ea parte fuisse quâte, quâ virum omni tude dignum patrem tum. It

(b.) The same is the case with the particle quam after a comparative, see \$256, R. 5, (a.) But sometimes when quam connects a clause to a preceding proposition containing the accusative with the infinitive, the same construction follows that precedes quam, even when the verb of the latter clause is expressed; as, Nonne tibi affirmari quidris me potius perpessirum, quam ex Itâdiā ad bellum civile me exiturum; instead of quam extrem or quam ut extrem. Cic.

(c.) In long speeches in the *brātio cbliqua*, relative clauses, having a verb of their own which should properly be in the subjunctive, are put in the accusative with the infinitive, if the relative clause is not subordinate to the one with the infinitive, and which is governed by a verb of saying or perceiving,

but is rather coordinate with it; in which case the relative is equivalent to the demonstrative with et; as, Nam illorum urbern ut propagatium oppositum esse burbaris, opad quam jam bis classes régias f'écisse neafroiquem; for et opad eam jam bis, etc.—In Livy and Tacitus the same construction sometimes occurs even after conjunctions; as after quam in the sense of 'while,' see  $\frac{5}{2}$  28, 5, R, 3; after quamquam on account of its absolute signification, see  $\frac{5}{2}$  198, 4, and after quia.

Nore 4. The personal pronouns, which, with the other moods, are expressed only when they are emphatic, must be always expressed in the accusative with the infinitive. The verbs 'to promise' and 'to hope' are in English usually joined with the infinitive present without a pronoun, but in Latin not only is the pronoun expressed, but the infinitive which follows is in the future; as, 'He promised to come,' is in Latin, Promist se centurum (scil. cssc, see § 270, R. 3). But the infinitive present sometimes occurs after these verbs; as, Politeentur obsides düre, Cas. B. G. 4, 21; and the pronoun is occasionally omitted, see § 239, R. 2 and 3.

REMARK 1. When ambiguity would arise from the subject and the object of the verb being both in the accusative, the passive infinitive is substituted for the active, by which means the subject is put in the ablative, or in the accusative with per; as, Ne fando quidem auditum est, crocodium violatum esse ab Ægypting reviolatium violatum esse ab Ægypting reviolatium violatum esse ab

REM. 2. After verbs of saying thinking, etc., the conjunction that is omitted inruslating from English into Latia, and the subject of the dependent clause is put in the accusative, and its verb in the infinitive.

REM. 3. The accusative with the infinitive is sometimes rendered into English by a similar form; as, Si vis me flere, If you wish me to weep. Hor; but the dependent clause is more frequently connected to the verb of saying, etc., by the conjunction that, and the infinitive translated by the indicative or potential mood; as, Sentimus airem esse albam, We perceive that snow is white. Cic. Sometimes the dependent clause is annexed to the other without the conjunction; as, Crediant se neglig; They think they are neglected. Ter.

REM. 4. A present infinitive corresponds to the imperfect indicative, when an accusative it follows a preterite tense; as, Dixit Ossirem vebries, He said that Cassar coas coming. Cass. In like manner the perfect infinitive with an accusative after a preterite tense corresponds to the pluperfect indicative; as, Dixit Casirem venises, He said that Cassar had come. See § 208, 2.

Rem. 5. The present infinitive, after verbs of sense, is often equivalent to the present participle; as, Surgere videt linam, 'He sees the moon (to rise) rising. Virg. Arma rutiliare vident. Id. Vidibis collècère fáces. Id. Nec Zéphġros audis spirāre? Do you not hear the zephyrs blowing? Id. Sepe hoc mājores nātu dicere audīri. Cic. The two constructions are sometimes united; as, Médiam video discedère calum, pālantesque pôlo stellos. Virg.

Rem. 6. The subject-accusative after verbs of saying, showing, and believing; as, dice, niego, trado, fêro, mêmôro, narro, nuntio, pêrlubeo, prodo, scribo, dêmonstro, ostendo, arquo, crédo, pâlo, existimo, and the like, and also after jubeo, rêto, and problitéeo, is regarded also as the accusative of the object after these verbs; and hence such verbs are used also in the passive, the accusative of the active voice becoming, as usual, the nominative of the passive. This is especially the case when their subject is indefinite; as, Dieunt (they or people say) me circum probum esse, or dicor vir probus esse. So, Vétimur hoc fúcêre, instead of, Nos hoc fúcêre evitant. Instead also of the impersonal vidétur (it appears) followed by the infinitive with, its subject-accusative, it is common to say personally, videor, vidêris, etc., with the infinitive; as, videor errasse, it appears that I have cerred.

# INFINITIVE AND SUBJUNCTIVE CLAUSES.

- § 273. When the particle that, in English, introduces a clause denoting a purpose, object, or result, it is a sign of the subjunctive in Latin, and is to be expressed by ut, etc.; but otherwise it is usually the sign of the accusative with the infinitive. Cf. §§ 262 and 272.
- 1. (a.) Verbs of endeavoring and resolving take after them the infinitive and more rarely the subjunctive, when the subject remains the same; but when the subject is changed, they take the subjunctive only.
- Note I. Such are statuo, constituo, decerno, tento, laboro, paro, meditor, caro, nitor, contendo, consilium capio, animum or in animum indico. Ct. § 271, N. 1. After operand o, lesset myself, di, hoc, or illud ago, I endeavor, nibit antiquius habor or direc quam, nothing is of more importance to me, and video for caro, the subjunctive is almost exclusively used.
- (b.) Verbs of effecting are construed with ut or ne and the subjunctive.

Note 2. Such are facio, efficio. perficio, evinco, pervinco, impetro, asseguor, consequor, etc. But facer to effect occurs in the Brut. 38, in connection with the accusative and infinitive passive.

- Note 3. Facio with ut is also used as a periphrasis for the indicative; as, Inritus quidem feci, ut L. Flüminium e sënātu ipicērem, for invitus ējēci. Cic.—Fac, 'suppose' or 'granting,' and efficere, 'to prove,' take the accusative with the infinitive; but the passive efficitur, 'it follows,' takes also the subjunctive.—Fācēre, 'to introduce' or 'represent,' is joined with a present or perfect participle; as, Lælium et Scipionem facimus admirantes. Cic. In the passive the accusative also with the infinitive is found, there being no present participle; as, Isocrittem Philo laudāri facit a Scirite. Cic.
- 2. Verbs signifying to request, to demand, to admonish, to advise, to encourage, to command, and the like, both when the subject remains the same and when it is changed, are followed by the subjunctive with ut or ne, and only rarely by the infinitive.
- Note 4. (a.) Such are rögo, öro, prēror, pēto; posco, postūlo, flagtio; mūneo, admõneo, commūneo, hortor, cōhortor, czhortor, sudrico, persudrio, instituto, (I instruct), impello, cōgo, mando, proseribo, elito, deterno, legem do, censeo, perpilo, ezetto, instituto, timpēro, etc.; as, Te non hortor sūlum, sed čtiam öro, ut tūta mente in rempublikam incumbas. Cic.
- (b) In the poets and later prose writers the infinitive more frequently follows those verbs without any difference of meaning. The poets even use the infinitive to express a purpose; as, Proteus pecus epit allow viseve montes. Hor.
- (c.) Nuntio, scribo, mitto, and even dira, are followed by the subjunctive, when they imply an injunction or intention that something should be done; as, Hee at facias, scribo. Cie.
- (d.) Jibbo and vito commonly take the accusative with the infinitive, but sometimes the subjunctive with or rarely without ut. Sometimes, with the infinitive, the person to whom the command is given is omitted, especially when it is either obvious from the nature of the command or indefinite; as, Castra mainre jibbt, seil. milites. Cas. Lex rete facer jübet, seil. hömines. Cic. With the subjunctive the lative of the person sometimes follows jübeo; as, Britumior jused, ersavgiert. Tac.—Impère is sometimes followed by the accusative with the infinitive passive; and so also is censeo, I vote, or, I ordain. The latter is often construed with the participle in dus with esse expressed or understood; as, Carthäginen delendan censo.

- (e.) Moneo and admoneo, 'I remind,' and persuadeo, 'I convince,' take the accusative with the infinitive.
- (a.) In the oratio ob'tqua, the construction of the accusative with the infinitive, is exchanged for that of the subjunctive, to denote possibility, liberty, duty, etc.; as,

Virginius ūnum Ap. Claudium ligum expertem esse aicbat: respicerent tribūnal homines castellum omnium scēlerum. Liv.

- (b.) On the contrary, when the subjunctive has been used after a verb of requesting, commanding, etc., the construction often passes into that of the accusative with the infinitive; the verb of saying being considered as implied in the verb of requesting, etc.; as, Ordbat ne se ut particulam liberina aversarentur: sib vitam files aud advirorm fuisse, si... Liv. Cf. § 270, R. 2, (b.)
- 4. (a.) Verbs which denote willingness, untillingness, permission, and necessity, commonly take the infinitive, or the accusative with the infinitive, but sometimes the subjunctive.
- Note 5. Such are võla, nõla, māla, opta, permitta, pätiar, sīna, cancēdo, līcet, prõlabea, õpartet, and nēcesse est. Cl. § 271, R. 4. Võla ut is used to express a strong em plasis. Nõla is not construed with the subjunctive.
- (b.) An infinitive passive without a subject is sometimes used with opertet; as, Non opertuit relictus, scil. esse ancillas. Ter. Ut ut érat, mansum tâmen opertuit, scil. esse. Id. Non pătăbant de tâlt viro suspicionibus opertere jūdicări. Nep.
- (c.) Some other verbs which regularly take the accusative with the infinitive after them, are occasionally followed by the subjunctive.
- 5. Quod, 'that,' commonly with the indicative, introduces a substantive clause containing the explanation or ground of the predicate or of some other word in the principal clause.

REMARK. The subjunctive follows guod in those cases only in which the clause expresses the view or sentiment of some other person than the writer or speaker. Cf. § 266, 3.

#### Quod is used:-

- (1.) After such expressions as bēne, māle, prūdenter fūcio; bēne, māle fit; ēcēnit, accīdīt, and the like; pratēreo, mitto; and generally adde, accēdīt, etc.; as, Bēne fūcis, quod me adjūcas.
- (2.) To introduce the explanation of a noun, pronoun, or pronominal adverb in the principal clause; as, Magnum beneficium est nature, quod necesse est mairi.
- (3.) After verbs signifying an affection of the mind, and the outward expression of such feeling; and also after verbs of praising, censuring, accusing, and thanking.
- Nore 6. Such are gaudeo, delector, grātum, or jācundum eti mībi, augor, dībeo, ægra, mībeste, or graviter fro. successeo, pantiet, mītor, admīror, glorior, grātias ago, quēror, indignor, and others of similar meaning; as, Scipio sope quērēbātur, quod onnibus in rēbus hōmīnes dītigentiones essent, ut, etc. Cie. Gaudeo quod te interpellari. Id. Quod spirātit, quod eforem mittifs, quod formas hōmīnem hobetis, indignantur. Liv. Cato mītrarī se aičbat, quod nor rīdēret haruspez, haruspīcem quum vidēret. Cie.
- Note 7. After those verbs which express the feeling of joy, grief, etc.; as, gaudeo, disleo, mirror, the accusative with the infinitive is more commonly found, but those which denote the outward expression of such feeling are more commonly construed with quod; but sometimes this distinction is reversed. Grātūlor is commonly joined with quod.

Note 8. A purely objective proposition is expressed by quod only when it with an adverte is, Adde quod pales this created ones. Hor. Adde has quod pales this create onnes. Hor. Adde has quod pales this create onnes. mercem sine fucis gestat. Id. Fecit humaniter Licinius, quod ad me vespor renit. Cic. In all other cases the infinitive is employed in purely objective propositions.

- By the infinitive, with or without a subject-accusative, a proposition is 6. expressed as a thought, so that it resembles an abstract noun; by quod, with expressed as a dought, so that it resembles an abstract foun, or year, with the indicative or the subjunctive, it is represented simply as a fact. To the latter is frequently joined hoc, id, illud, istud, or huc, etc.; as, Illud quoque nobits accelit incommodum, quod M. Jainias abest. Cie. Huc accelibul, quod, etc. Sall. Quod generally refers to past time, and hence it is preferable to say, Grälissimum mihi est, quod ad me taa mänu scripsisti; but with the infinitive, Grälissimum mihi est, quod ad me taa mänu scripsisti; but with the infinitive, Grälissimum mihi est, quod ad me taa mänu scripsisti; but with the infinitive, Grälissimum mihi est, quod ad me taa mänu scripsisti; but with the infinitive, Grälissimum mihi est, quod ad me taa mänu scripsisti; but with the infinitive, Grälissimum mihi est, quod ad me taa mänu scripsisti; but with the infinitive, Grälissimum mihi est, quod ad me taa mänu scripsisti; but with the infinitive, Grälissimum mihi est, quod ad me taa mänu scripsisti; but with the infinitive, Grälissimum mihi est, quod ad me taa mänu scripsisti; but with the infinitive, Grälissimum mihi est, quod ad me taa mänu scripsisti; but with the infinitive, Grälissimum mihi est, quod ad me taa mänu scripsisti; but with the infinitive, Grälissimum mihi est, quod ad me taa mänu scripsisti; but with the infinitive, Grälissimum mihi est, quod ad me taa mänu scripsisti; but with the infinitive, Grälissimum mihi est, quod ad me taa mänu scripsisti; but with the infinitive, Grälissimum mihi est, quod ad me taa mänu scripsisti; but with the infinitive, Grälissimum mihi est, quod ad me taa mänu scripsisti; but with the infinitive gralissimum mihi est, quod ad me taa mänu scripsisti; but with the infinitive gralismum mihi est, quod ad me taa mänu scripsisti; but with the infinitive gralismum mihi est, quod ad me taa mänu scripsisti; but with the infinitive gralismum mihi est, quod ad me taa mänu scripsisti punctive grant mihi est, quod ad me taa mänu scripsisti punctive grant mihi est, quod ad me taa mänu scripsi mum mihi est te bene valere.
- (a.) Quod, with the indicative, in the sense of as to, or with regard to, is used at the beginning of a sentence, especially in letters, in repeating an expression of a person for the purpose of answering it; as, Quod autem me Ayamemmonen combilari patas, falleris. Nep. Quod scribis te relle scrier, qui sit reipublice status: summa disesnio est. Cic. Sentences thus introduced by quod are in no grammatical connection with the verb that follows them. See § 206, (14.)
- (b.) Quod is used in explanatory or periphrastic propositions which refer to a preceding demostrative pronoun, as hoc, id, etc., unless such pronoun he added pleonastically, in the nominative or accusative, to verbs governing the accusative with the infinitive; as, Mihi quidem videntur homines hac re maxime belluis præstare, quod loqui possunt. Cic.
- Note 9. The construction of the infinitive resembles, in the following particulars, that of a noun in the singular number and neuter gender:-
- (a.) Like a noun, it may have an adjective or pronoun agreeing with it; as, Totum hoc philosophari displicet. Cic. Quum vivere ipsum turpe sit nobis. Id. Me hoc ipsum nihil agere delectat. Id. Meum intelligere nulla pecunia vendo. Petr. See § 205, R. 8.

(b.) It may be followed by a limiting genitive; as, Cujus non dimicare fuit rincere. Val. Max.

(c.) It may be either the subject or object of a verb. See § 209, R. 3, (5,) and 229, R. 5. It may also be used after neuter verbs, like an accusative, depending on a preposition understood; as, Te accepisse meas literas gaudeo. Ter. See § 232, (2,) and 273, 5.
(d.) It is also used like a predicate-nominative; as, Vidère est perspectre aliquid. Cle. See § 210.

(e.) It may, like a genitive, limit the signification of an adjective or noun. · See § 270, R. 1.

(f.) It may, like an accusative, depend on a preposition; as, Aristo et Pyrrho inter optime valere et gravissime ægrotare, nihil prorsus dicebant interesse. Cic. Quod crimen dicis præter amasse meum? Ovid. Inveniet nil sibi legatum, præter plorare. Hor.

(g.) It is used also like an ablative; as, Audito regem in Siciliam tendere.

(h.) Sometimes, also, especially in the poets, it denotes a purpose, like a participle in dus, (see § 274, R. 7.); as, Loricam donat habere viro. Virg.; or like a dative of the end, (see § 227.)

### PARTICIPLES.

§ 274. 1. Participles are followed by the same cases and constructions as their verbs: as.

Quidom, posta nominatus. A certain one, called a poet. Cic. Cătălorum oblita leana, The lioness forgetful of her whelps. Virg. Faventes rebus Carthàginiensium, Favoring the interests of the Carthaginiaus. Liv. Tendens ad sidera palmas. Virg. Accisatus rei capitalis. Cic. Prima dicte mili summa dicende Cic. meinā, Hor. Omina doctus. Stat. Cisus obies osisira marinus. Id. Cartitari arböre montes. Ovid. Parcendum est teneris. Juv. Hendum est actate. Ovid. L. Britus arcens reditu tryannum, in predio concidit. Cic.

2. The present, perfect, and future active participles, denote respectively an action which is present, past, or future, in reference to the time of the verb with which they are connected; as,

Simul hoc diceus attollit se. Virg. Tum ad Thraseam in hortis ügentem missus est. Tac. Turnum fügientem hac terra videbit? Virg. Qui missus ab Argis Italia consederat urbe. 1d. Limia mänöre achitatits perfunctus, petit pratūram. Cie. Jussus cum fide panas tuam. Hor. Jūvėnis mėdios moritūrus in hostes irrnit. Virg. Peritūrus injecit sese in agmen. 1d. Illa tibi ventūra bella expeditet. 1d.

Note. The participle expresses the action or state of the verb, and also marks its complete or incomplete state or condition. Cf. § 144, 1-3. Except, however, in deponent verbs, the Latin language has no active participle denoting a completed action, equivalent to the English 'having written,' nor any passive participle denoting a state of suffering still going on, equivalent to the English present participle 'being loved.'

REMARK 1. The present participle, particularly that of the verb eo, sometimes denotes that which is about to be done; as, Interclūsit hiems, et terruit Auster enntes, ... as they were on the point of going. Virg. Nec nos via fallit enntes. Id.

REM. 2. (a.) The present participle, also, sometimes denotes a purpose; as, band, örantes võnum,....to sue for favor.... Virg. Eurypõjum scitanten örācüla Phabi mittimus. Id. (b.) It is also used to express a state or condition, where, in English, a substantive is employed with a preposition; as, ignõraus, from gnorance; mētuens, from fear; consulatum pretens, in his suit for the consulship; omne midum noscens facile opprimitur,—in its origin.

Risi. 3. (a.) The perfect participle passive, especially in the poets, often denotes the result of a past action, and thus supplies the place of a present participle passive; as, Nõus rõulu pecă tectus coligine....covered with pitchy darkness. Ovid. Cf. Virg. Lin. 1, 480; 2, 277; 4, 72, 589; 5, 113, 708; 6, 335 Georg. 1, 204. It is often to be translated by a present active participle; as Minin pectus percussa décorum, flaventesque abscissa comas, l. e. pervatiens, obsciudens, Virg. Tinuse pectora palmis. Id. So, alos, solitus, musus, frisus, and the perfect participles of deponent verbs; as, Lonquin contu solita labborem. Id. Vox auditur fractos solitus imitata tabbrum. Id. Dictitia us Gasrom complexivossecrâre copit. Cas. Concritos sanguine crines görens. Virg. Tonsis in vallibus, i. e. quie tondentur. Id.

(b.) The perfect participle of a preceding verb is often used in a succeeding clause, to express the completion of an action; as, Exercitum fundit fugatque, fusum perséquitur. Liv. This idiom frequently occurs in Ovid.

REM. 4. Hibbo, with perfect participles denoting knowledge and determination; as, cognitum, perspectum, perceptum, comprihensom, exploratium, stituinaconstituium, delibératum, persusum mihi habbo, etc., forms a periphrasis, like the passive verb in English, and equivalent to cognon, perspexi, percept, etc., instead of the verb of the participle; as, Clodit demum perspectum or cognitum habbo; tor perspexi; etc., I perceive, know. Persudasum mihi habbo and persudsisamum habo are used only in the neuter gender and with an accusative with the infinitive in the sense of mihi persudsi or persudasum mihi est. When habbo with any other participle than those above indicated is used, it expresses more than the ordinary perfect active; as, Quod me hortiris ut absolutum; habbo absolitatum suder posa od Cesterm; i. e. I have it ready. Cit. Do, reddo, cürō, těneo, possideo, and missum făcio, are sometimes so construed with participles; as, Missam iram fáciet, for mittet. Ter. Hostes victos dăre, for vincère. Sall.

- Rem. 5. (a.) The passive participles may supply the place of a verbal noun in io or us, the perfect being employed to represent an action as completed, and the future when it is conceived as still incomplete; as, Ante Römen conditum, Before the building of Rome. Cic. Consilia urbis delendae, Plans for the destruction of the city. 1d. See § 275, Il. With the limitations about to be made in regard to the nominative, this construction is used in all the cases, and even when they are governed by the prepositions, ad, ante, ob, post, propter; do and ex; as, Has likiva récitâte magnam luctum fécèrunt, The reading of this letter. Liv. Tirentum captum, The taking of Tarentum. Ob réceptum Hamaibidem, On account of the reception of Hamibal. Sibi quisque cassi regis expétibat décus, The glory of killing, or, of having killed the king. Propter Africam domitam. Eutrop. Ante Epâminondam natum. Nep. Post Christum nitum. Ab condità urbe ad liberitam. Liv. The oblique cases only of participles in das are used in this manner as the nominative denotes necessity, (see Rem. 8.) and even the perfect participle is not thus used in the nominative by Cicero.
- (b.) The neuter of the perfect passive participle without a noun is used by Livy, as the subject of a proposition; as, Tentitum per dictation, and ambo patricii consules crearentur, rem ad interregnum perducit: i. e. the attempt, or the fact of the attempt being made by the dictator. Compare a similar use of this participle in the ablative, § 257, R. 9, (1.) (c.)
- (c.) The English 'without' with a verbal substantive; as, 'without writing, without having waited,' etc., is expressed in Latin by means of a negative noun, adjective or particle connected with a participle; as, Casar exercitum namquam per insidiosa itinėra dascit, nisi perspeculātus locorum sius, without having examined the localities. This form occurs often with the ablative absolute; as, Athenienses non exspectato auxilio adversus ingentem Persärum exercitum in pretium expérientum, without waiting for assistance. So, nullā prastitūtā die, Without tixing any time. Cic. Misērum est nihil perficientem angi. Id.
- Rem. 6. (a.) The participle in rms, especially with verbs of motion, often derivine sud, He goes to Jupiter Ammon, to consult respecting his origin. Just.
- (b) It is also used where in English a clause connected by since, when, although, etc., is employed; as, Plara locations ôbire nos jussit, When or although we intended to say more. Herealem thermain, thair in prachim canuat. Tac. Hence it is sometimes used, though not by Cicero, to express the inference from a hypothetical proposition; as, Egrádiur castris Rômains, vallum invasarus, ni côpia pugnæ fièret. And with the repetition of the preceding verb; as, Dedit mihi quantum maxime pôtuit, daturus amplius, si pôtuiset, i. e. ac dédisset amplius. Plin. Ep.
- REM. 7. (a.) The participle in dus, also, denotes a purpose passively, when joined with verbs signifying to give, to delicer, to agree for, to have, to receive, to undertake, etc. Such are do, trado, tribuo, attribuo, mando, mitto, permitto, concedo, rechme, conduco, bico, hábeo, accipio, suscipio, reliaquo, câro, deposco, rego, sa, Festamentum thi tradit legendum, He delivers his will to vou to read. Hor. Attribuit nos trucidandos Celhego. Cic. Quod ütendum accépéris, reddito. Id. Cônon máros dirátos a Lýsandro réficiendos carárit,—ordered them to be restored. Nep.
- (b.) But the same meaning may be expressed actively by means of ad and the germud; as, Casar opptions and dirpiendum militabus concessid.—The poets sometimes use the infinitive active for the same purpose; as, Tristitian et mitus triadum protervis in maire Cuspium proterie ventis. Hor. In prose such use of the infinitive is of exceedingly rare occurrence; as, Bibère daire. Cic.

REM. 8. (a.) The participle in dus, when agreeing with the subject of a sentence, has the signification of necessity or propriety; sometimes, though rarely, except in later writers, that of possibility; as,

Is vēnērandus a nobis et colendus est, He should be worshipped and honored by us. Cic. Delenda est Carthago, Carthage must be destroyed. Cato. Hee spēranda fuòrumt. Virg. So with est used impersonally; as, Utrum pāce nobis an bello esset ūtendum. Cic.

(b.) Sometimes, also, when not agreeing with the subject of a sentence, it has this signification; as, Facta narrābus dissimūlanda tūti, You were relating facts which you should have concealed. Ovid. A. L. Brūto princīpe hūjus maxime conservandi generis et nominis. Cic.

REM. 9. The participle in dus, in its oblique cases, supplies the place of a present participle of the pussive voice, to denote a continued or incomplete action; as, Occapatus sum in literis scribendis, in writing letters; literally, in letters which are being written. See § 275, II.—So, also, in the poets both in the nominative and oblique cases; as, Triginta magnos volvendis mensibus orbes império explébit. Virg. Volvenda dies. 1d. Cf. Volventibus annis. 1d.

Rem. 10. After participles in dus, the person by whom a thing must be done, is put in the dative, but in a few passages even of Cicero it is found in the ablative with ab. See § 225, III.

REM. 11. The neuter of the participle in dus, joined with a tense of esse in the periphrastic conjugation (see § 184, 3.) retains the signification of necessity; as, Audendam est, We must venture. In early writers and sometimes also in the poets, an accusative of the object is joined with this neuter, if the verb is transitive; as, Nune pacem or andum, nune—arms reponendum, et bellum extitate accendam. Sil. But in classical Latin such accusative is generally changed to the nominative, and the participle is made to agree with it in gender and number. Thus, instead of virtatem landandum est, we usually find virtus landanda est. The accusative in this connection is used by Cicero in only two passages. Utendum est with the ablative occurs more than once in Cicero; as, Quans suo cutque judicio sit ûtendum.

REM. 12. In classical prose the participle in dus never has the signification of possibility, except when joined with vix; as, Vix optandum nöbis rdděbātur. Cic. Vix évul cridendum, i. e. ciz crèdi pôtêvat. Later writers use it in this sense with negative particles, and at a later period it was used with still more frequency in the sense of possibility as well as in that of necessity.

 (a.) A participle is often employed, instead of a verb, in a conditional, explanatory, adversative, relative, or other dependent clause; as,

Cărio, ad fócum sédenti (as he was sitting) magnum auri pondus Samnītes attairrunt. Cic. Tridui vium progressi, rursus révertérunt; for, quam progressi essent. Covs. Dömgius tyrannus, Sprācūsis expulsus, Córindi putros dócibat. Cic. Dišnijsius, cultros métuens tonsòrios, candenti carbone sibi adarebnt còpillum. Id. Risus interdum ita répente érumpit, ut eum chipientis ténére néqueâmus. Id. Cicônie abiture congrégantur in léco certo. Plin.

Note 1. If the participle refers to a noun not contained in the leading proposition, it is put with that noun in the ablative absolute. See § 257, R. 3.

Nore 2. (a.) The English clauses most frequently expressed in Latin by means of participles are such as are counceted by relatives or by as, when, after, although, since because, etc.; as, Nêmo observat linear nisi labrantem. Sen. Ut öcklus, sie admins, se non videus, alia ceruit,—though not perceiving itself. Cl. Servilius Adala Syfrium Medium, regunn applientem, interient,—because he was aspiring to the sovereignty. Cl.—(b.) When a participle is connected with a relative or interrogative it can only be translated by a circumlocution; as, Non sunt ea bina discenda, quitous abundantem itself esse misserimum,—which one may possess in abundance, and still be very miserable. Clc. Nenduus absurdum esse dicebat, ignitate etgem, quid spiraus auf pêtens venērit,—with what hope or request he had come. Line

- (b.) When two verbs are in English connected by and, and the actions denoted by them are regarded as simultaneous, one of them may be expressed in Latii by the present participle; as, He sits and holds his lute, IIIe (Arton) sedens citháram tênet. Ovid. Simul hoc dicens attolit in agrum se fémur. Virg. i. e. hoc dicit et attolib. But if one of the actions precede the other, the perfect participle must be used; as, Casar attacked and defeated the enemy. Casar hostes aggressus fügärit. Submersas obrue puppes, i. e. Submerge et obrue. Virg.—When the English clause would be connected by although, the participle is often followed by tômen. Later writers in such case join the participle is often followed by tômen. Later writers in such case join the participle is often followed by tômen. Later writers in such case join the participle is often followed by tômen. Later writers in such case join the participle is often followed by tômen. Later writers in such case join the participle are sometimes retained in the ablative absolute—It is only in late Latin that participles are sometimes used in describing persons as possessing certain attributes, e. g. adstantes, audientes, for ii qui adstant, audiant, i. e. the bystanders, hearers.
- (c.) A participle is used with verbs signifying to represent and perceive, especially to see and hear, when the object is described or perceived in a particular state; as, Apelles pinait Alexandrum Magnum falmen tenentem. Plin. In English the infinitee is often joined with verbs of seeing and hearing; as, Audici te canentem, I heard you sing. Audici te canentem, I heard you sung. Videmus Poliphemum rasta se mole moventem. Virg.

Note 3. In many cases, for want of a perfect participle active, and a present participle passive, this construction cannot be used. Thus,  $q_{mn}$  analysis cannot be exchanged for a participle corresponding with the English hwing loved. As the perfect participles of deponent verbs, however, have an active signification, they admit of the participle construction. The want of a perfect active participle may also be supplied by the perfect passive participle in the ablative absolute. Set § 257, R. 5.

# GERUNDS AND GERUNDIVES.

§ 275. I. Gerunds are governed like nouns, and are followed by the same cases as their verbs; as,

Mētus pārendi sībi, Fear of obeying him. Sall. Parcendo victis, By sparing the vanquished. Liv. Efféror stáclio patres restros videndi, I am transported with a desire of seeing your fathers. Cic. Pětendi consûlātum grātiā. Sall. Vēnit ad réctpiendum pecūnias. Varr.

- REMARK I. The gerund is the same in form as the oblique cases of the neuter singular of participles in dus, but it has the meaning of the active voice. It is sometimes translated by the present participle with a preposition, and sometimes by a present infinitive active; as, Constitum Lacedemonem occupandi, A design of occupying, or to occupy, Lacedemon. Lin
- Rem. 2. The gerund is sometimes, though rarely, used in a passive sense; as, Spes restituendi nulla irat,—of being restored. Nep. Athiracs erudiendi grātiā missus,—for the purpose of being instructed. Just. Ante dómandum. Virg. Ades ad impérandum. Cie.
- REM. 3. The gerund is in its nature a verbal noun, having only the genitive, dative, and, after a preposition, the accusative. In its signification it corresponds with the English present participle when used as a verbal noun. Hence, in the oblique cases, it supplies the place of a declinable present infinitive active; but in the accusative there is this difference between the infinitive used as an accusative and the germud, that the infinitive has simply the power of an abstract noun, whereas the gerund expresses a real action; as, Maltum interest inter dure et actipier. Sen. Non solum and discendum propensissiums, sed titum ad document.

II. When the *object* of an active verb is to be expressed, the participle in *dus* is commonly used in preference to the gerund; the object taking the case in which the gerund, if used, would have been put, and the participle agreeing with it.

Thus, to express 'the design of writing a letter,' which, with the aid of the gerund, would be represented in Latin by Consilium scribendi ėpisiölam, the participle in dus is commonly substituted for the gerund: and since, in this example, the gerund, (scribendi) is in the genitive, the rule requires that, in substituting the participle for the gerund, the object of the gerund givesiblem, should also be put in the genitive, and that the participle (scribendus) should agree with it in gender, number, and case. Hence with the participle the expression is, Consilium scribenda ėpisibla. Between the two forms of construction there is no difference of signification. So, Consiliu misis delendas (Cic.), for urbem delendi, Plaus for destroying the city. Reparandārum classium causā (Suct.), for repaircutii classes. Perpetiendo labori idibeus. Colum. Ad defendendan Roman ab oppugnanda Capua diaces Romans abstrabiere. Liv.

REMARK 1. The same construction is used with the future passive participles of idor, fruor, fungor, pitior, and rarely of médeor, as these verbs were originally followed by the accusative; as, Lius ad here itenda idonea. Ter. Justitiæ fruendæ causā. Cic. In münere fungendo. Id. Hostes in spem potiundirum castrorum vēnērant. Cæs. Aquæ sālābritāte mēdendisque corporibus nobles. Vell.

REM. 2. When a participle is thus used for a gerund, it is called a gerundite, and is usually translated like a gerund. The gerundive cannot be substituted for the gerund, where ambiguity would arise from the gender not being distinguishable. It should therefore not be used when the object of the gerund is a neuter pronoun or adjective; as, Alquid faciend ratio (Cic.), not divijus. Artem et vêra et falsa dijulicandi (1d.), not virorum dijulicandorum: because it would not be known whether dileijus and virorum were masculine or neuter. It is to be remarked, also, that the change of the gerund into the gerundive is less frequent in some writers than in others.

III. Examples of the construction of gerunds, in each of their cases, have been already given, among other nouns, under the heads Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative. The following remarks specify in what connections they are used: and when it is said that the gerundive is governed in any of the cases like the gerund, it will of course be understood of the noun which is limited by a gerundive.

REMARK 1. The genitive of gerunds and gerundives may follow either nouns or relative adjectives; as,

Amor hābendi. Cic. Patrium spes videndi. Virg. Nam hābet nötāra, ut āliārum omnium rērum, sic vivendi modum. Cic. Birbāra consultādo hōmīnum immolimdiem. Id. Postrono Cātlāna dissimilandi causā aut sui expurgandi, in sēnātum rēnit. Sall. Inīta sunt consilia urbis dēlenda, cīrium trūcīdandorum, nōmīnis Rōmām exstinguendi. Id. Vēnaudi stālibā. Cic. Certus eundi. Virg. Insučtus nācigandi. Cres. Pērītus citālis rēgendae. Nep.

(1) The nouns after which these genitives most frequently oceur are āmor, are, causa, consilium, consuctado, cópida, cópidates, désidérium, difficultas, finis, ficeltas, forma, grâtia, illècebra, libido, lócus, licentia, módus, mātéria, mos, occasio, olium, pótestas, rátio, spátium, spes, stádium, tempus, ásus, vénia, vis, vóluntas.

Note 1. With these and other substantives the infinitive also may be used, when with a tense of som they form a periphrasis for a verb which is followed by the infinitive, or supply the place of an adjective of which the infinitive is the subject; as, Quibus ômia hômesta utque inhômesta vendère mos èrat, With whem it was a custom, or, who were necustomed. Sall. Tempus est abire, It is time, i. e. tempestivum est, it is proper to go.

- (2.) The relative adjectives, which most frequently take after them these genitives, are such as denote desire, knowledge, remembrance, and their contraries; as, árdis, cápidus, studious, piritus, impéritus, insuétus, certus, conscius, ignârus, rūdis, etc. See § 213, R. 1, (3.)
  - Note 2. With the relative adjectives the infinitive is also joined poetically.
- (3.) Instead of an accusative after the gerund, or a genitive plural with a gerundive, a noun or pronoun in the genitive plural is sometimes joined with the gerund; as, Exemplorum čligendi potestas, instead of exempla cligendi, or, exemplorum čligendovan. Cie. Eŭrum rêrum infiliandi vidio. Id. Făcultas agrorum condonană. Cie. Nominandi storum rêvid copia. Plant.
- (4.) The pronoun tui and also the plurals vestri and sui, even when feminine, are joined with the masculine or neuter form of the gerundive in di; as, Quoniam tui videndi est copia. Plaut. Non vereor, ne quis hoc me vestri adhortandi causă magnifice logui existmet. Liv. In costra venerunt sui purgandi causă.—With the demonstrative pronouns, gius, hijus, dilus, the participle usually agrees, but in two passages of Terence cius, though referring to a woman, has the participle in di, not in de; as, Ego gius cidendi capidus recai consequor. Ter. Tui in the first example and cius in the last are feminine.
- (5) By a Greek bliom the gerund and gerundive, after the verb sum, are sometimes found in the genitive denoting a tendency or purpose, with no noun or adjective on which they can depend; as, Regium impérium initio conservandæ libertätis fuèrat. Sall. Sometimes esse in some form is to be supplied; as, Quæ postguam glörvösa módo, nêque belli patrandi cognôrii, scil. esse. Id. Causă or grătă may sometimes be supplied. In some other cases, also, the word on which the gerund in di depends is not expressed, and the grund seems to be used instead of the infinitive; as, Māneat provincialibus potentium suum tāli môdo ostentandi, scil. făcultas. Tac. Quum hābēvem in ānimo nāvigandi, scil. propostum. Cic.
- REM. 2. The dative of gerunds and gerundives is used after adjectives which govern a dative (§ 222), especially after those which signify usefulness or fitness; and also after certain verbs and phrases, to denote a purpose; as,
- Charta emporetica est inutilis scribendo. Plin. Căpessendæ reipūblica hābilis. Tac. Un nec triumtiri accipiundo, nec scribæ rei Frundo sufficierud. Liv. Locum oppido condendo capère. Id. Non fuit constitum agrum colendo au vienando intentum atâtem ágére. Sull. Tibérius quaisi firmandæ välitadini in Campaniam concessit. Tac. Quum solvendo ære alieno respublica non esset. Liv. Quum solvendo ciritâtes non essent,—were insolvent. Cic.
- (1) The verbs and phrases upon which this dative most frequently depends are, Stüdere, intentum esse, tempus impendire, tempus consūmère or insūmère, δρέταπα dâre, sufficire, soits esse, deesse, esse, signifying to serve for, to be adequate to, and, in later writers, on verbs of motion.—The dative of the germud after sum is usually supposed to depend on idöneus understood; but see § 227, R. 3.
- (2.) The dative of the gerundive, denoting a purpose, is also used after names of office; as, December legibus scribendis, i. e. the ten commissioners for drawing up a code of laws. Liv. So, Cômitia creandis decembers. Id. Triumtros agro dando creat. Id.
- (3.) A purpose is more commonly expressed by ad and the accusative of the gerund, or by a clause with ut, than by the dative; as, P&eus ad vescendum hominibus apta. Cic.
- REM. 3. The accusative of gernnds and gerundives follows the prepositions ad, to, or inter, during or amid, and sometimes ante, circa, or ab; as.

Ad pænltendum pröpērat, qui cito jūdicat. Pub. Syr. Inter bibendum, While drinking. Just. Ad bölērandos fācilius lābores. Quint. Ad castra fācienda. Cic. Ob absolvendum. Id.

Note. The construction of the gerundive instead of the gerund almost invariably occurs here when the object of the gerund is to be expressed.

REM. 4. The ablative of gerunds and gerundives follows the prepositions a, (ab), de, e, (ex), or in; or it is used without a preposition, as the ablative of cause, manner, or means; as,

Aristótélem non déterruit a scribendo. Cic. Ex assentando. Ter. Non videor a défendendis hóminibus discédère. Cic. Creseit enndo. Virg. Rem quævunt mercâtūris fâciendis. Ciç. Orâtiönem Látinam lègendis nostris efficies plêniòrem. Id.

Note 1. This ablative also occurs, though rarely, after pro and cum; as, Pro vāpūlando. Plaut. Cum lõquendo. Quint.

Note 2. Generally with the ablative of the means, and always with the ablative after a preposition, the gerund, when its object is to be expressed, is changed to the gerundive. In a few passages the ablative of the gerundive is differently construed; as, Nullam officium referenda gratia magis necessarium est, instead of relation gratia. § 256. Cic. Ne. jam possidendis pablicis agris contentos esse. § 244. Liv. Is finis fuit ulciscenda Germânici morte,—in avenging the death of Germanicus. Tac.; where the ablative seems to imply time. § 253.

#### SUPINES.

§ 276. Supines, like gerunds, are verbal nouns, having no other cases except the accusative and ablative singular. In certain connections they supply the place of the present infinitive; the supine in un having an active and the supine in u a passive signification. As in the case of gerunds, we are to regard their construction both as verbs and as nouns. As verbs we are to notice their government, as nouns, their dependence.

I. Supines in um are followed by the same cases as their verbs; as,

Non Grāiis servītum mātrībus ībo, I shall not go to serve Grecian matrons. Virg. Te id admonītum vēnio. Plaut.

II. Supines in um follow verbs of motion, and serve to denote the purpose of the motion; as,

Cūbītum discessimus. Cic. Ire dējectum monumenta rēgis. Hor. Lēgāti vēnērunt questum injārias, et res rēpētītum. Liv. Quum spectātum līdos īret. Nep. So after participles; as, Patriam dēfensum révocātus. Nep. Spectātum admissi. Hor.

Note. The construction of the supine in um, considered as a noun, is analogous to that of names of places in answer to the question 'whither?' (§ 237), the notion of purpose arising from its verbal character.

REMARK 1. Supines in um sometimes follow verbs which do not express motion; as, Do filiam nuptum. Ter. Vos ultum injūrias hortor. Sall.

REM. 2. The supine in um with eo literally signifies 'I go to do a thing,' and hence 'I intend,' or, 'am going to.' Instances of this use are found in Plautus and Terence and in the prose writers later than Ciercy; as, Mea Gligérium, quid digis? cur te is perditum? Why are you going to destroy yourself? Plaut. Bönörum præmia ëreptum eunt. Sall. With eo the supine in um often forms a periphrasis equivalent to the same mood and tense of the verb from which the

supine is formed; as, Ne bōnos omnes perditum cant (Sall.), for perdant. Exequium cant (Id.), for eripiant. Ulum ivit (Tac.), for ulus est. Ultum ire injūrias festinat, i. e. ulcisci. Sall.

REM. 3. The supine in wm most frequently occurs with the Infinitive iri, with which it forms the future infinitive passive; as, Bridum visum iri a me pâto. Cic. In this construction the accusative properly depends upon the supine, and iri is used impersonally; '1 suppose that I am going to see Brutus' 184, 2, (a.) Its notion of futurity is derived from the proper signification of the active voice, as perditum iri, to go to destroy, the idea of intending passing easily into that of futurity.

REM. 4. But to express a purpose Latin writers in general prefer using a gerund or gerundive in the accusative with ad or in the genitive with causa or gratida, a subjunctive clause with ut or qui, a present or future active participle, and sometimes poetically an infinitive. See § 275, R. 1, 2: §§ 262, 264, 274, and 271.

III. The supine in u is used to limit the meaning of adjectives signifying wonderful, agreeable, easy or difficult, worthy or unworthy, honorable or base, and a few others; as,

Mirābile dictu! Wonderful to tell, or to be told! Virg. Jūcundum cognitu atque audītu, Pleasant to be known and heard. Cic. Res factu fūtlis, A thing easy to be done. Ter. Fūcilia inventu. Gell. Incrēdībile mēmorātu. Sall. Turpia dīctu. Cic. Optimum factu. Id.

Note. The principal supines in u in common use are auditu, cognitu, dictu, factu, intentu, mênörâtu and nâtu, which occurs in the expressions, grawdis, mâjor, nânor, maximus, and minimus nâtu. In magno nâtu, of an advanced age, and maximo nâtu filius, the eldest son, nâtu is the ablative of a verbal substantive, since neither gerunds nor supines are joined with adjectives.

REMARK 1. The principal adjectives, after which the supine in v occurs, are affolisis, arduns, asper, bouns, deforms, dignos, indignos, dules, duras, facilis, diff tells, fadus, gravis, honestus, horendus, incredibilis, jacundus, injucuadus, magnus, memorabilis, moltis, prodetivis, publice, radus, turjus, and attles.

REM. 2. The supine in u is used also after the nouns fas, nëfas, and ŏpus; as, Hoc fas est dictu. Cic. Nėjas dictu. Ovid. Dictu ŏpus est. Ter.—In the following examples it follows a verb: Pūdet dictu. Tac. Agr. 32. Dictu fastudienda suut. Val. Max. 9, 13, 2.

REM. 3. As the supine in n is commonly translated by a passive form. It is placed under the passive voice; but, in many cases, it may with equal or greater propriety be translated actively. As a noun, its construction may be referred to the ablative of limitation,  $9\,250$ .

REM. 4. (a.) Instead of the supine in u, an infinitive, a gertund or gerundive with ad, or a verbal noun in the ablative, and sometimes in the dative or accusative, may be used; as, Ardud imitata, crievum cognosci ūtilia. Val. Max. Illud autem facile ad credendum est. Cic. Opus proscriptione dignum. Plin. Ayna pōtui jūcunda. Id. Fācēlior ad intellectum atque imitātionem. Quint. With ōpus est the perfect passive participle is often used instead of the supine in u, ; as, Opus est matūrāto, There is need of haste. Ci. § 243, R. 1.

(b.) The construction with ad and the gerund; as, res făcilis ad intelligendum; or with sum and the infinitive active; as, făcile est invenire, is used by the best writers after făcilis, difficilis, and jăcundus. The most common construction of dăgnas is with gui and the subjunctive, (§ 264, 9), but the poets and later prose writers have joined it with the infinitive passive.

### ADVERBS.

§ 277. I. Adverbs modify or limit the meaning of verbs, adjectives, and cometimes of other adverbs; as,

Běne mônes. You advise well. Ter. Fortissime urgentes, Most vigorously pressing on. Plin. Male narrando. Ter. Longe dissimilis. Cic. Valde bêne. Id.

REMAIK I. Adverbs may also modify nouns, when they are used as adjectives or participles, and accordingly denote a quality, or when a participle is understood. They are also joined to adjective pronouns, when their adjective character predominates; and sometimes limit the meaning of a preposition; as, Populus lâte rex, for lâte regnans,—ruling far and wide. Virg. Nihil admodum, Nothing at all. Clie. Hômo plane noster,—entirely ours, that is, devoted to us, ld. Homèrus plane brâtor. Id. Admodum puella. Liv. Lâte tŷrumus. Hor. Grâribus supernicitabus conflictabuntur, i. e. sûperne accidentibus. Tac. Multarum circu civitâtum, i. e. neighboring cities. Liv.

REM. 2. (a.) Most of the modifications made by adverbs may also be made by means of the various cases of nouns and adjectives, and many modifications may be made by these, for expressing which no adverbs are in use. In general those limitations which are most common can be expressed by adverbs; as, septenter for cum sipientil; the for in hoc bloe, bene for in bono model, nume for hoc tempore.—(b.) The following are examples of other parts of speech used adverbilly, viz. Nihil, 'in no way', monthil, 'in some measure'; quidquam, 'at all'; âliquid,' somewhat'; quid?' why?'

REM. 3. A negative adverb, modifying another negative word, destroys the negation; as,

Non părère noluit, He was not unwilling to obey. Nep. Haud iquăra măti, tot ignorant of evil. Virg. Haud nihil est, ît is something. Ter. Nec hoe ille not nihit, and this he clearly perceived. Cic. So, nonnulli, some; nonnunquam, sometimes. Non, before a negative word, commonly heightens the affirmative sense, while it softens the expression; as, Homo non indoctus, i. e. homo săme dactus. Non sămel, i. e. sepius; non ignôro, non nescio, non sum nescius, I know very well. Qui mortem în mătis pôntl, non pôtest eam non timēre,—must needs fear it. Cic.

Rem. 4. When the subject and predicate of a proposition are both modified by negative words, and also when the predicate contains two negatives, the proposition is affirmative; as,

Nêmo non videt, Every one sees. Cic. Nêque have non êvênêrunt, And this indeed took place. So, if both the antecedent and the predicate of a relative clause are negative, the proposition is affirmative; as, Nêmo est, qui nesciat, Every body knows. Cic.

REM. 5. (a.) But in the case of non followed by ne—quiden, the two negatives do not destroy each other; as, Non fagio ne hos quiden mõres; and when the negative leading proposition has subordinate subdivisions with nêque—nêque, nêre—nêre, or non—non, these negative particles are equivalent to aut—aut; as, Non me carminibus vincet, nee Orpheus, nec Luus. Virg. Nëmhem, non re, nou verbo, non vultu denique offendi. Cic. Nullius rei nêque prees, nêque manceps fintus est. Nep.

(b.) In a few passages, however, two negatives in Latin, as in Greek, strengthen the negation, and this exception appears to have been derived from the language of common life; as, Jāra te non nocitūram homini nemini. Plant.

(c) Nemo, nullus, nthil, and munquam have a different sense according as the non is placed before or after them; as, Non nemo, some one; nemo num, every one; non null, some; nullus non, every; non nthil; something; nthil non, every thing; non numquam, sometimes; numquum non, at all times. So, nusquam non, every where, but instead of nonunsquam, dit to is used.

REM. 6. (a.) Non is sometimes omitted after non modo or non solum, when followed, in a subsequent clause, by ne quidem, if both clauses have the same verb, and if the verb is contained in the second clause; as, Mihi non moblo trasci, sed ne dölöre quidem impüne licet, which is equivalent to Mihi non modo non irasci, sed ne dölöre quidem impüne licet, or Mihi non modo irasci, sed dölöre quidem impüne non licet, Not only am I not permitted to be angry, but not even to grieve with impunity. Cie. Quum sendiui non sölum jüväre rempüblicam, sed ne lügöre quidem liceret. Il

(b.) Non is also rarely omitted after non mode when followed by sed or verum with étaun, and also after rix; as, Qui non mode ea fitura time, fert, sustinctque presentia, Who not only does not fear... Cic. Hee généra viritum non solum in môvibus nostris, sed viz jam in libris répériuntur, These virtues are not only not found in life, but scarcely in books. Id.

REM. 7. Fácile, in the sense of undoubtedly, clearly, is joined to superlatives, and words of similar import; as, Vir ānas tolius Graciae facile doctissimus. Cic. Homo régionis illius tiritate fácile princeps. 1d.

REM. 8. Sentences are often united by means of an adverb which is repeated before each of the connected clauses; as, modo—modo, and numc—numc, sometimes—sometimes); as, Modo hov, modo illud divit; modo huv, modo illuc violent. Instead of the second modo other particles of time are sometimes used; as, aliquando, nonnumquam, interdum, serpius, tum or deinde.—Partim—partim, 'partly,'—partly,', is sometimes used with a genitive or the preposition ez, in the sense of àhi—diti, as a nominative in all the genders; as, Quam partim e nobis ita timili sunt, ut, etc., partim ita ripiabheă âversi, ut, etc.—Simul—simul, 'as well—as,' like namc—nume, is not found in Cieco.—Quā—quā is equivalent to et—et.—Tum—tum is used sometimes like modo—modo, sometimes like partim—partim; as Erumpunt sepe ritiv ânticirum tum in ipsos ânticos, tum in ălienos. Cie. Hec (bênêficia) tum in ântiversam rempâblicam, tum in singilos cires conferendur. It.

REM. 9. Quam—tum is equivalent to et—et, except in assigning a greater importance to the second part; hence it must be translated by 'both—and especially,' 'not only—but also,' or 'but more particularly.' Sometimes additional weight is given to the second part by means of rêro, certe, êtim, quóque, proc ipue, impormis or maxime. This use of quam—tum seems to have had its origin in the use of quam with the subjunctive and often with the indicative in the protasis, followed by tum in the apodosis. When quam followed by tum serves to express the opposition between single words which have the same verb, it is to be regarded as a complete adverb; as, Fortuna quam in reliquie ribus, tum practipue in bello plairinum pôtest. Sometimes the verb stands in the first part of the sentence; as, Quam omis arrôgantia oblisas est, tum illustration and to the sentence; as, Quam pater morieus quam tutoribus et propinquis, tum Epithus, tum acquitati magistratum, tum judiciis vestris commendatum putateit. Cie. Sometimes the gradation is, quam—tum—tum rêro.

REM. 10. Non moble—sed rition (or non solum, or non tentum—verum itimu) generally expresses the transition from less important to more important things, like the English 'not only—but (also)'. The transition from greater to smaller things is expressed by non moble—sed, without the itium, which we render in English by I will not say—but only,' and in Latin, too, we may say non dicam or non dico—sed; as, Quid est in ninus non dico oratoris, sed hominis.

REM. 11. Tam—quam expresses a comparison in degree; as, Nēmo tam multa siripsit, quam multa sunt nostra. With superlatives they are rendered into English by 'the—the' and comparatives; as, Viternõsus quam plārimam bibli, tam muzime stūt. The more he drinks, the more he thirsts. Cato. Quam quisupe pessine freit, tam muzime titus est. Sall—Tam—quam quad muzime signifies, 'as much as possible.'—Non tam—quam signifies, 'not so much—as,' or 'less—than'; as, Prōrincia von tam grātiōsa et illustris, quam négòtiosa ac molests t. Cir.

REM. 12. Non minus—quam and non mäqis—quam are equivalent to aque—ac, 'as much as,' but in non mäqis—quam the greater weight is attached to the affirmative clause beginning with quam; as, Alexander non dacis magis quam

mīlītis mūnia exsēquēbātur, Alexander performed as much the service of a soldier as that of a commander. In this connection plus frequently supplies the place of magns.

(a.) Sic and tta are demonstrative adverbs corresponding to the relative ut. The restrictive meaning of ita (see § 191, R. 5.), is sometimes made more emphatic by the addition of tamen. Tantus is used in a like restrictive sense; as, Præsidii tantum est, ut ne mūrus quidem cingi possit, i. e. 'only so much.' Cæs.

(b.) Ut-Ita or sic places sentences on an equality. They may sometimes be translated 'although-still,' or 'indeed-but.'-The adverb ut, 'as,' sometimes takes the signification of the conjunction quod, 'because'; as, Atque ille, ut semper fuit apertissimus, non se purgavit. Cic.

REM. 13. In an enumeration, primum, deinde, tum, dénique are commonly preferred to the numerals, primum, secundo, (for secundum is not often used), tertium, quartum, etc., unless the strict succession of the numbers is required. Sometimes tum is used once or twice instead of deinde, or the series is extended by accedit, huc adde, etc. Sometimes denique is followed by postremo to form the conclusion of a series, but often denique without the other adverbs concludes a series, and is then equivalent to 'in short' or 'in fine.' See Cic. Cat. 1, 5.

Rem. 14. Minus is often used for non; as, Nonnumquam ea, que prædicta sunt, minus eveniunt. Cic .- So, si minus-at, 'if not-yet;' and sin minus, 'but if not,' without a verb, after a preceding si; but with si non the verb is repeated. The English 'how little' is in Latin quam non; and 'so little,' ita non or ădeo non; as, ădeo non curăbat, quid homines de se loquerentur.

Rem. 15. Nunc always expresses the time actually present, or the time to which a narrator transfers himself for the purpose of making his description livelier. Thus in speaking of the present time we may say, Nunc primum somnia me élüdunt or élüsérunt; but in a narrative we must say, Somnia tunc prīmum se dicēbat ēlūsisse. Compare the use of hic and ille. See § 207, R. 23, (c.)

REM. 16. The conjunction dum, 'while,' when added to negatives, becomes an adverb, signifying 'yet'; as, nondum, 'not yet'; necdum, 'and not yet'; nullusdum, 'no one yet'; nihildum, 'nothing yet.' Hence vixdum signifies 'scarcely yet'; as, Vixdum ěpistolam tuam legeram, quum ad me Curtius vēnit. Cic.-So, also, the conjunction nisi, by omitting its verb or uniting it with the leading verb, acquires, after negatives and negative questions, the sense of the adverb 'except,' which is generally expressed by præterquam or the preposition prater, and must be so expressed when no negative precedes. But the expression 'except that' may be rendered either by nisi quod or præterquam quod.—After nihil aliud we may use either nisi or quan, nisi referring to nihil and quan to aliud. Hence nihil aliud nisi signifies 'nothing further,' or 'nothing more,' and nihil aliud quam, 'nothing else,' or 'no other thing but this.'

Rem. 17. Ut, 'as,' in interposed clauses, such as ut opinor, ut puto, ut censeo, ut crēdo, is frequently omitted. Crēdo, used in this manner often takes an ironical sense.

### PREPOSITIONS.

II. 1. See respecting the construction of prepositions with the accusative, § 235; and with the ablative, § 241. See, also, for the different meanings of prepositions, § 195, and for their arrangement, § 279, 10.

2. Two prepositions must not be joined in Latin, as they sometimes are in English, with the same nonn; as, to speak for and against a law; or, I have learned this with, and, to some extent, from him. These sentences may be thus expressed in Latin; pro lége et contra légem dicère; hac cume o, partim étian ab eo didici. Those dissyllable prepositions only, which are sometimes used as adverbs, may follow another, without being joined with a case; as, Quod aut sécundum nátúram esset, aut contra. Cic. Cis Pádum ultráque. Liv. Casar roverses the order, Intra extráque nánithoses. B. Civ. 3, 72.

3. When nouns mutually dependent upon a preposition are in apposition, when they constitute an enumeration without a connective, and when connected by copulative, disjunctive, adversative, or comparative conjunctions, the preposition is not repeated, unless such nouns are to be distinguished from each other, or are emphatic; as,

Quid dicam de thēsauro omnium rērum, mēmoriā? Hoc appāret in bestiis, volincrībus, nantībus, agrestībus, cicūrībus, fēris, ut se ipsæ diligant. Cic. Sepissime inter me et Scipionem de âmicitid disericidaur. Al. Quid fūceres si in alīquam domum villamve vēnisses? Id. Nihil per īram aut cūpiditātem actum est. Id. Thēmistôcles non minus in rēbus gērendis promptus quam excogitandis ērat. Nep.

4. The monosyllable prepositions ab, ad, de, ex, and in are often used before each of two nouns connected by et, etc., especially if the qualities denoted by such nouns are to be considered separately. If the nouns are separated by et—et, nec—nec, etc., the prepositions must be repeated; as, Ut eōrum et in belliës et in cirilbus officius vigeat industria. Cie—Inter is frequently repeated by Cicero after intéresse, and other writers repeat it after other verbs also; as, Quid intersit inter pópulárem—cirem, et inter constantem, sĕĕrum et grávem. Cic. Certātum inter Ap. Claudium maxime fĕrunt et inter P. Dēcium. Liv.

5. (a.) In poetry a preposition is occasionally omitted with the first of two nouns, and put with the second only; as, Quæ némóra, aut quos agor in spécus. (Hor.) for, in quæ némóra aut in quos spécus ágor. So, Hor. Ep. 2, 1, 25.—(b.) An ellipsis of a preposition with the relative pronoun sometimes occurs together with that of the verb belonging to the preceding demonstrative; as, In eadem ôpiniône fui, quâ rêliqui omnes, (Cic.), properly in quâ rêliqui omnes fuirum.

# CONJUNCTIONS.

§ 278. Copulative, disjunctive, and other coördinate conjunctions, connect similar constructions.

NOTE 1. Clauses are similarly constructed, which are mutually independent, whose subjects and verbs are in the same case and mood, and which have either no dependence or a similar dependence on another clause.

Note 2. (a.) Words have a similar construction, when they stand in the same relation to some other word or words in the sentence. Hence,

(b.) Conjunctions connect the same cases of nouns and pronouns, dependent, if the cases are oblique, upon the same government; the same number, case, and gender of adjectives, belonging to the same noun; the same mood of verbs, either independent, or alike dependent; adverbs qualifying the same verbs, adjectives, etc.; and prepositions on which depends the same nonn or pronoun; as, Concident venti, făgientque năbes. The winds subside, and the clouds disperse. Hor. Lôcum, quem et non côquit soi, et tangit ros. Vatr. Lâth décem per dies, fucti sant, nêque res ulla pretermissa est. Cic. Vides, nt altă stet nive candidum Soracte, nee jam sustineant onus silvæ liborantes, gelüque flumina constitărint ăcuto. Hor. Întelligitis et ănimum ei præsto fuisse, nec conšilium dēfuisse. Cic. Generi animantium omni est a nātūrā trībūtum, ut se tueātur, declinetque ea, que nocitura videantur. Id. Aut nemo, aut Cato sapiens fuit. Id. Pulvis et umbra sămus. Hor. Si tu et Tullia răletis, ego et Cicero vălemus. Cic. Aggère jacto turribusque constitutis. Cas. Clarus et honoratus vir, An illustrious and honorable man. Id. Cusar Remos cohortatus, liberaliterque oratione prosecutus. Cas. Pater tuus, quem comi et dilexi. Cic. Belga spectant in septentrionem et orientem solem. Cæs. Navibus junctis, ratibusque complari-bus factis. Id. Lēge, ret tabellas redde. Plaut. Allobroges trans Rhoddnum vicos possessionesque habibant. Cres. Quum triumphum ēgéris, censorque fueris, et bbieris légatus. I.l. Quum ad oppidum accessisset, castraque ibi ponèret. Cres.

Ades ănimo, et omitte timorem. Cic. Ea videre ac perspicere potestis. Id. Graviter et copiose dixisse dicitur. Id. Cum fratre an sine. Id. Cf. § 277, II. 2. Cui carmina cordi, numerosque intendere nervis. Virg. Nec census, nec clarum nomen avorum, sed probitas magnos ingeniumque fácit. Ovid. Philosophi negant quemquam virum bonum esse, nisi sapientem. Cic. Gloria virtulem tamquam umbra sequitur. Id.

REMARK 1. Copulative conjunctions may connect either single words and phrases or entire clauses; the other conjunctions, whether

coördinate or subordinate, connect clauses only.

REM. 2. Words thus connected are sometimes in different cases, though in the same construction; as, Meā et reipūblicæ intērest. Cic. (See § 219.) Sive es Rome, sire in Epīro. Id. (See §§ 221 and 254. But see also § 221, Note.) In Mettii descendat judicis aures, et patris et nostras. Hor. See § 211, R. 3. In like manner, Hannibal non äliter vinci potnit, quam morā.

REM. 3. As the subjunctive is often used for the imperative, they may be

connected by coordinate conjunctions; as, Disce nec invideas. Pers.

REM. 4. Where the purpose of the writer requires it, coordinate conjunctions sometimes connect independent propositions, whose verbs are in different moods; as, Stuporem hominis, vel dicam pecudis, videte. Cic. Nec satis scio, nec, si sciam, dicere ausim. Liv.

REM. 5. Et is used after multi followed by another adjective, where in English 'and' is usually omitted; as, Multe et magne arbores, Many large trees. In such cases et supplies the place of et is, introducing a more accurate

description. See & 207, R. 26, (c.)

REM. 6. The conjunction is often omitted; as, (a.) When two single words, as comprehending the whole idea, are opposed to each other, as, velim, nölim, whether I would or not; maxima minima, the greatest as well as the least; prima postrema, from the first to the last; dignos indignos adire; ire redire, to go to and fro. Ædifíciis omnibus publicis privatis, sacris pròfanis sic pepercit. Cic. Nam glöriam, hönörem, imperium bonus ignāvus æque sibi exoptant. Sall. C. 11.

(b.) Et is very frequently omitted between the names of two colleagues; as, Consules declarati sunt Cn. Pompeius M. Crassus. P. Lentulo L. Triario, quastoribus urbānis. Cic. Sometimes, also, when the two persons are not colleagues. It is also occasionally omitted between two words in the oratorical style; as, Adirant amici, propingu. Id.; also with verbs; as, Adsunt, queruntur Siculi. Id. In good prose, if three or more substantives are joined, it is usual either wholly to omit the conjunction or to insert it between each. The following may serve as an example of both cases: Qui non modo Cariis, Catonibus, Pompeiis, antiquis illis, sed his récentibus, Máriis et Didiis et Cæliis commémorandis jácébant. This is also the common practice with adjectives and verbs, and hence when et has not previously occurred in an enumeration of persons or things, we should not conclude the enumeration with et alii, et reliqui, et cetera, etc., but should make use of the adjectives alone, alii, reliqui, cetera, etc. But though et, ac and atque are not used alone in the third or fourth place, yet the enclitic que frequently occurs in this position; as, Précor ut ea res vôis pacem, tranquillita-tem, ditum, concordamque affèrat. Cic. Et may be supplied also when two protases introduced by si are joined together; where we say 'if—and if,' or 'if—and.' See an example in Cic. Off. 3, 9.

(c.) An ellipsis of ut is supposed when ne precedes and et, atque, or que is used to continue the sentence, those copulative conjunctions in such case obtaining the meaning of the adversative sed; as, Monere capit Porum, ne ultima

experiri perseveraret, dederetque se victori. Curt.

Rem. 7. Copulative conjunctions are often used, before each of two or more connected words or clauses, in order to mark the connection more forcibly; as, Et pécania persuadet, et gratia, et auctorius dicentis, et dignitus, et postremo aspectus. Quint. Hoc et turpe, nec tâmen tâtum. Cic. Neque nâta est, et alerna est. I.l. Et lû et mâth voluptait fore. I.l. Before clauses the disjunctive conjunctions are used in a similar manner; as, Res ipsa aut invitābit aut dēhortābitur. 1d. So, also, nunc...nunc, simul...shnul, partim...partim, quā...quā, tun... tun, quua...tun, are used before successive clauses.

REM. 8. To connect different names of the same person or thing, sive or seu, rather than aut or vel, is employed; as, Mars sive Māvors. Cf. § 198, 2, (c.)

REM. 9. Instead of et and ut with the negatives nime, nthil, nullus, and nunquam, rèque (or nec), and ne are used with the corresponding affirmative words quisquam, utilus, unquem, and usquam. But 'in order that no one' is rendered in Latin by ne quis and not by ne quisquam, see § 207, R. 31, (a.); as, Hora quidem cédant, et dies, et menses, et anni: neo pretéritum tempus unquam revertitur. Cic. Sénâtus décrècit, dárent opéram consules, ne quid respublica détrimenti cápèret. Cæs.

REM. 10. The conjunctions igitue, virum, virumdimen, sed, and sed timen, niciate a return to the construction of the leading clause, when it has been disturbed by the insertion of another clause. These conjunctions, in such connection, are usually rendered by 'I say,' and sometimes in Latin inquam is 50 used. Nam also is occasionally employed in this way and very rarely

ĭtăque.

REM 11. Vêro and autem are frequently omitted in adversative clauses, especially in short ones; as, Vineère seit Hannibal, cictòrià ni nescit. Liv. This omission often occurs in describing a progress from smaller to greater things, ar in Cie. Cat. 1, 1. And it is to be remarked that non in the second member of such adversative sentences is used without et or vêro; as, âlièna vitia videt, sua non tidel. But in unreal suppositions or ironical sentences, where the second member contains the truth, et non or ac non must be used, where we may supply 'rather'; see § 198, 1, (c.); as, Quāsi nunc id āgātur,—ac non hoc quærātur. Cie.

# INTERJECTIONS.

Respecting the construction of interjections with the nominative, see § 209, R. 13:—with the dative, § 228, 3:—with the accusative, § 238, 2:—and with the vocative, § 240.

## ARRANGEMENT.

# I. OF THE WORDS OF A PROPOSITION.

- § 279. I. In arranging the parts of a proposition in English, after it; next, the reb and its modifiers; then, the object of the verb; and finally, prepositions and the words depending upon them. This is called the logical or natural order.
- 2. (a.) In Latin, either of the four principal parts of a sentence may be placed first, and there is great freedom in the arrangement of the rest, but with this general restriction in prose, that words which are necessary for the complete expression of a thought should not be separated by the intercention of other words. In ordinary discourse, especially in historical writing, the following general rule for the arrangement of the parts of a sentence is for the most part observed.
- (b.) In a Latin sentence, after connectives, are placed, first, the subject and its modifiers; then, the oblique cases and other words which depend upon or modify the verb; and last of all, the verb.

- (c.) Hence a Latin sentence regularly begins with the subject and ends with the principal verb of its predicate; as, Dumnörix grātiā et largitiõne ôpud Sīguiāno gibuātiramu põterat. Cæs. But the verb is often not placed at the end of a sentence, especially if the sentence is long, or if two many verbs would be thus brought together at the end. In the familiar style, also, the verb is often placed earlier in the sentence, and in explanatory chauses it is sometimes placed at the very beginning of the proposition, in which case a conjunction is generally added.
- (d.) It is also to be remarked, as a further modification of the general rule of arrangement, that, in sentences containing the expression of emotion, the word whose emphasis characterizes it as especially affecting the feelings, or as forming a contrast, is placed at the beginning; as, Cito arescit lacrima, presertim in altients mails, Quickly dries the tear, especially when shed for others' woes. Cic. Sun ritia insipicutes et suam culpam in sénectatem conférant. Id.
- (e.) If there be no emotive or pathetic word requiring prominence, the place at the end of the proposition is reserved for the significant word, that is, the word which is to be most strongly impressed upon the understanding or memory; as, Gallia est omnis divisa in partes tres. Cass. Quod ante id tempus accidinational. Id. Quod aliud ther häberent nullum. Id. Quod virtus ex providendo est appellita pridentia. Cic.
- 3. (a.) Connectives generally stand at the beginning of the clause which they introduce, and with the following this is their only position; viz. et, ĕtĕnim, ac, at, atque, atqui, nĕque or nec, aut, vel, sīve, sin, sed, nam, vērum, and the relatives quāre, quōcirca, and quamobrem.
- (b.) Most other connectives generally stand in the first place, but when a particular word is peculiarly emphatic, this word with all that belongs to it stands first, and the conjunction follows it. Ut, even when there is no particular emphasis, is commonly placed after vix, pene, and prôpe, and also after the negatives nullus, nime, nhill, and the word tantum. In Cierco, titaque stands first and lgitur is commonly placed after the first, and sometimes after several words.
- (c.) Autem, Enim, and vêro (but), are placed after the first word of the clause, or after the second, when the first two belong together, or when one of them is the auxiliary verb sum; as, Ilbe ënim révécatus résistère capit. Cass. Eyo véro rellem, affaisses. Cic. Incrédible est ènim, quam sit, etc. Id. They rarely occur after several words; as, Cur nun de integro autem datum. Id. The encities que, ne, re, are usually subjoined to the first word in a clause; but when a monosyllable preposition stands at the beginning, they are often attached to its case; as, Könnem Câto d'enigraint, in foreque esse capit; and this is always the case with a, ad and ob. So, also, for the sake of euphony, Apiad quosque. Cic.
- (d.) Quidem and quōque, when belonging to single words, are always subjoined to the emphatic word in a clause; as, Verbo ille reus ĕral, re quidem
  wire Oppianicus. Cic. Me scilicet maxime, sed proxime illum quoque féfellissem. 1d. In negative sentences, ne precedes, and quidem follows, the emphatic
  word; as, Ne cal Cūtōnem quidem prōrōcabo. Cic.—Quidem is sometimes attracted from the word to which it properly belongs to a neighboring pronoun;
  as, Tibique persuade, esse te quidem mini cărissimum, sed multo före căribrem,
  si, etc., instead of, te cărissimum quidem mini esse.—Prepositions and conjunctions belonging to the word on which the emphasis rests are placed with it between me and quidem; as, Ne in fānis quidem. Cic. Ne si dibitetur quidem. Id.
  Ne quum in Sichia quidem fuit. Id.; and even Ne cipus rei arquiertur quidem.—
  So, also, in Cicero, non misi, 'only,' are separated; and the negative may even
  be contained in a verb.
- (e.) The preceding rules respecting the position of connectives are often violated by the poets, who place even the prepositive conjunctions after one or more words of a proposition; as, Et u, potes nam, etc. Hor. Vivos et roldret

- unques. Id. They even separate et from the word belonging to it: as, Audire et videor pios errare per lacos. Id. So, Auctius atque dit mellus freeze. Id. And they sometimes append que and re neither to the first word, nor to their proper words in other connections; as, Messallem terra dum séguiturque mári, instead of terra márique. Tib. In such arbitrary positions, however, these conjunctions are almost invariably joined to verbs only.
- 4. When a word is repeated in the same clause, so that one is opposed to, or distinguished from, the other, they must stand together; as, Hömines hömines marine wittes esse possunt. Cic. Equites shift allo divips sunt. Liv. Légitque virum vir. Virg. Mänus mänum låvat. Petr. So, also, the personal and possessive pronouns; as, Séquère quo tua te nätüra dücit. Sunm se něgotium ägére dicunt.
- 5. Words used antithetically are also placed near each other; as, Dum tăcent, clămant. Cic. Frăgile corpus ănimus sempiternus mövet. Id.
- 6. Inquam and often aio, introducing a quotation, follow one or more of the words quoted; as, 'Non nost quid piter,' inquit, 'Chrissippus dicat.' Her. 'Quid,' aio, 'tua crimina prodis?' Ovid. When a nominative is added to inquit, it usually follows this verb; as, Milit vivo, inquit Cotta, videtur. Cic.—Dicit and divit are used like inquit only by the poets.
- 7. (a.) The adjective may be placed before or after its noun according as one or the other is emphatic, the more emphatic word being placed before the other. When any thing is dependent on the adjective, it usually follows its noun. When a noun is limited by another noun, as well as by an adjective, the adjective usually precedes both; as, I'lla officii pracepta. Cic. Tuum erga diguitatem mean stachum. Id.
- (b.) Demonstratives, and the adjectives primus, médius, etc., when signifying the first part, the middle part, etc., (see § 205, R. 17), usually precede their nouns; as, Ea res. Caes His ipsis verbis. Cic. Média nox. Caes. Réliqua Ægyptus. Cic.
- Monosyllables are usually prefixed to longer words with which they are connected; as, Vir clarissimus. Cic. Di immortales. Res innumérabiles, Vis tempestatis. Cass.
- 9. (a.) When nouns are put in apposition, the one which explains or defines the other is generally put last, unless it is to be made emphatic; as, Opes irritiments meliorum. Ovid. Hence names of honors or dignities, and every thing of the nature of a title, are commonly placed after the proper name, as explanatory additions. Thus, especially, the names of changeable Roman dignities; as, Cicéro consul; C. Ciariòni tribūno plebis; but also permanent appellations; as, Emins poëta; Plato philosophus; Diongisus tyranmus; and such epithets as vir kônestissimus; hômo doctissimus. But the hereditary title rex is frequently placed before the name; as, rex Deiotarus; and so the title Impérâtor after it became permanent.
- (b.) In the arrangement of the Roman names of persons, the prantomen stands first, next the nomen or name of the gens, third the cognomen or name of the finithia, and last the agnomen; as, Publius Cornolius Scipio Africanus. The prenomen is usually denoted by a letter. In the imperial times the nomen is often either omitted or follows as something subordinate.
- 10. (a.) Oblique cases precede the words on which they depend, but they follow prepositions; as,

Populi Romāni laus est. Cic. Laudis āvidi, pēcūniæ libērāles. Sall. Cunctis esto bēnignus, nulli bludus, paucis fūmiliāris, omnibus æquus. Sen. Monāmentum ære pērennius. Hor. Hanc tibi dono do. Ter.—Ad mērādiem spectans. Cic. Extra pērādium. Id.

(b.) Genitives depending upon neuter adjectives are commonly placed last; as, Incerta fortune. Liv. Nec tibi plus cordis, sed minus oris inest. Ovid. REMARK. This rule, so far especially as it relates to genitives, is in a great degree arbitrary, as the position of the governed and governing words depends on the idea to be expressed; thus, mors patris tai, contrasts the death with the preceding life; but, fratris tai mors distinguishes this case of death from others. Hence we say, daims mothus, daims morbus, corporis partes, terræ motus.—An objective genitive usually follows the wor1 on which it depends; as, and signification liferarum, by means of a single notice by letters.—When several genitives are dependent on one noun, the subjective genitive commonly precedes and the objective genitive may either precede or follow the governing noun.—The genitive dependent on causā or grativ, 'on account of,' regularly precedes these ablatives; as, gloriac causā mortem obire; emoliments sis gratia.

(c.) When a noun which is governed by a preposition, is modified by other words which precede it, the preposition usually stands before the words by which the noun is modified; as, A prima live ad sextum horam. Liv. Ad aimi

mei lætitiam. Cic. Ad bene beateque vivendum. Id.

(d.) Sometimes, however, the preposition comes between its noun and an adjective or a genitive, by which the noun is modified; as, Nullā in re. Cic. Justis de causis. Id. Soos inter vaquides. Id. Hanc ob causam. Id. Magno cum mētu. Id. Quā in urbe. Id. Eā in re. Id. Ætātis suæ cum prīmis. Nep.—So, also, a conjunction may follow the preposition; as, Post vēro Sullæ victórium.

(e.) Per, in adjurations, is often separated from its case by other words; as, Per \(\tilde{e}\) of te deos \(\tilde{o}\).0. Ter.—In the poets, other prepositions are sometimes separated in the same manmer; as, \(Vulnera\), quae circum plurima miros acc\(\tilde{e}\)pi parated.

trios. Virg.

- (f.) Tenus and versus, and sometimes other prepositions, (cf. § 241, R. 1,) follow their cases, especially when joined with qui or hic. This occurs most frequently with the prepositions ante, contra, inter, and pronter; more rarely with circa, circum, pènes, ultra and adversus; and with still less frequency with post, per, ad, and de; as, quam ante, quem contra, quos inter, quem propier, quos ad, quem ultra, hince adversus, hunc post, quam circa.—The preceding prepositions, and more rarely others also, sometimes, especially in the poets and later prose writers, follow nouns and personal pronouns. In such case, if the noun be modified by an adjective or a genitive, the preposition sometimes stands between them, and sometimes follows both; as, Postes sub ipsos. Virg. Ripam āpud Emphrātis. Tac. Māria omnia circum. Virg. And more rarely other words intervene; as, His accensa saper. Id. Vitiis nēmo sine nuscitur Hor.
  - 11. Infinitives precede the verbs on which they depend; as,

Jügurtha, ŭbi eos Āfricā dēcessisse rātus est, nēque propter lóci nātūram Cīrtam armis expugnāre possit, mænia circumdat. Sall. Servīre māgis quam impērāre pārāti estis. 14.

- 12. A word which has the same relation to several words, either precedes or follows them all: as, Vir grâvis et sipiens. Cic. Clârus et hônôrâtus vir. 1d. In scriptôrbus lêgendis et imitandis, or In lêgendis initandisque scriptôribus; but not In lêgendis scriptôribus et imitandis. Quam respondère nêque vellet nêque posset. Hôbentur et dicuntur týranni. Amictian nec úsu nec râtione hûbent cognitam.
- 13. Relatives are commonly placed after their antecedents, and as near to them as possible; as,
- Qui sim, ex eo, quem ad te misi, cognosces. Sall. Literas ad te misi, per quas gratias tibi egi. Cic.
- 14. Quisque is generally placed after se, suus, qui, ordinals and superlatives; as, Suos quisque döbet luéri. Cic. Sátis superque est sibi suārum cuique rérum cara. Id. Sévéritas ânimadversionis infimo cuique gratissima. Id. Maxime détet, quod est cijusque maxime suum. Id. Quisque very rarely begins a proposition.

15. (a.) An adverb is usually placed immediately before the word which it qualifies; but if the same word is modified by the oblique case of a noun, the latter commonly follows the adverb; as, Male parta måle didduntur. Cic. Nihil tam aspërum nëque tam difficile esse, quod non cupidissime factur essent. Sall.—Impérium facile is artibus retinetur, quibus intilo partum est. Id. Sed maxime àdolescentum familiaritates appètebat. Id. Non tam in bellis et in prallis, quam in prômissis et fide firmiorem. Cic.—(b.) When non belongs to a single word of the proposition, it always stands immediately before it; as, non te répréhendo, sed fortimam. But if it belongs to the proposition generally, it stands before the verb, and particularly before the finite verb, if an infinitive depends on it; as, Cur tantopére te angas, intelligère sãne non possum. Instead of non dico, négo is generally used; as, négavid eum diesse.—The negatives non, néque, nêmo, nullus, when joined to general negative pronouns or adverbs, such as quisquam, ullus, umquam, always precede them though not always immediately; so, nêmi un quiquam ne rédicit; non mêmi me umquam te rédisse. § 207, R. 31.

NOTE 1. In some phrases, custom has established a certain order, which must be observed and imitated; as, Ciris Römänus, pópálus Römänus, jus civile, as allimum, terrā mārique, Pontifex maximus, māņister equitum, tribāmu militum consalāri potestāte, Jūpiter optimus maximus, via Appia; ne quid respāblica detrimenti cāpiat. Cic. The ablatives öpinione, spe, justo, sólito, (see § 256, R. 9), generally precede the comparative.

Note 2. Exceptions to the foregoing principles are very numerous. These may arise (a) from emphasis; (b) from potch idense; and (c) from regard to the harmony of the sentence. The following general rule sometimes modifies nearly all the preceding.

16. The emphatic word is placed before the word or words connected with it which are not emphatic.

Nore 3. The last place is often an emphatic one, except for the verb. When the verb is neither first nor last in a proposition the word before it is emphatic. An adjective, when emphatic, commonly precedes its substantive; when not emphatic, it commonly follows it. But with the demonstrative pronouns the rule is reversed.

NOTE 4. The principal poetical variation in the arrangement of words consists in the separation of the adjective from its noun, and in putting together words from different parts of a proposition.

17. A sentence should not close like a hexameter verse, with a dactyl and spondee; as, Esse vidētur; nor, in general, with a monosyllable.

18. Hiātus should be avoided; that is, a word beginning with a vowel should not follow a word ending with a vowel.

19. A concurrence of long words or long measures,—of short words or short measures,—of words beginning alike or ending alike,—should be avoided.

# II. OF THE ARRANGEMENT OF CLAUSES.

§ 250. A compound sentence, whose clauses are united as protasis and apodosis, or in which the leading clause is divided by the insertion of one or more subordinate clauses, is called a *period*.

1. (a.) In the former kind of period the protasis must precede the apodosis; as, Quum Pausinias semianimis de templo clatus esset, confestim animan efflavit, When Pausanias had been carried out of the temple but just alive, he immediately expired. In a period of the latter kind the verb of the principal proposition is placed at the end, and the subordinate clauses between the parts of the leading clause; as, Pausanias, quam semianimis de templo clatus esset, confestim animan efflavit, Pausanias, when he had been carried out of the temple but just alive, immediately expired. Xep.

(b.) A sentence, such as Scipio exercitum in Africam trājēcit, ut Hannibālem ex Itāliā dēdūcēret, is not periodic in its structure, but it becomes so when we

- say, Scipio, ut Hannibilem ex Itāliā dēdācēret, exercitum in Africam trājēcit. Periods in which the subordinate clause precedes with two conjunctions; as, quam igitur Römam vēnisset, stātim impērādrom āditi, are made still more strictly periodic by placing first the conjunction which belongs to the whole, and then inserting the subordinate proposition; as, Itāque, quum Rōmam vēnisset, stātim impērādrom ādit.
- 2. (a.) If the verbs of the leading and dependent clauses have the same subject, or the same noun depending on them, they are commonly formed into a period; as, Antigonus, quan adversus Seleucum Listimá humque dimitáret, in prulio occisus est. Nep. Quem, ut barbári incendium eff agisse êminus vidérunt, tells missis interfécérunt. Id.
- (b.) So, also, when the noun which depends on the verb of the leading clause is the subject of the dependent clause; as, L. Manlio, quum dictator fuisset,
   M. Pompönius, tribūnus plēbis, diem dixit. Cic.
- 3. When obscurity would arise from separating the leading subject and yerb by dependent words or clauses, they are often placed together at the beginning or end of the sentence; as, Latae (sunt) deinde lêges, non sôtum qua regni suspicione considem absolverent, sed qua adeo in contririum vertêrent, ut pôpicalivem étum fêorem t. Liv. The position of the leading verb is also often otherwise varied, from regard to emphasis, to avoid monotony, or to prevent its meeting with the verb of the last dependent clause; but clauses, when so arranged, do not constitute a period.
- 4. When one clause is interrupted by the introduction of another, the latter should be finished before the first is resumed.
- 5. Clauses expressing a cause, a condition, a time, or a comparison, usually precede the clauses to which they relate.
  - 6. A short clause usually stands before, rather than after, a long one.

# III. OF THE CONNECTION OF CLAUSES.

- (1) In connecting propositions, relatives, whether ponouns, pronominal adjectives, or adverbs, are often employed in order to avoid the too frequent recurrence of et, autem, and certain other conjunctions. Every relative may be used for this purpose instead of its corresponding demonstrative with et; as, qui for et is, qualis for et dibs, quo for et eo, etc. They are used also before those conjunctions which are joined with et or autem at the beginning of a proposition; as, si, nisi, ut, quum, etc. (see § 206, (14.); as, quod quum audeissem, quod si fécissem, quod quameis non sindoussem, for et quam hoc, et si hoc, et quameis hoc; or quam autem bace, etc.; and, often, also, where in English no conjunction is used, and even before other relatives; as, quod qui facit, eum égo implum failuto, i. e. et qui hoc finit, or, qui autem hoc facit. In the ablative with comparatives the relative is often used as a connective; as, Cato, quo nêmo tum êvat prakeintior, i. e. Cato, who was more prudent than all others.
- (2.) In propositions consisting of two members, the relative pronoun is joined grammatically either to the apodosis or to the protasis; with the former in Qui, quam ex eo quarérétur, cur tam diu vellet esse in vità, Ninli habeo, inquit, quod accūsem senectitem. Cic. de Sen. 6. But is more frequent with the protasis or secondary clause; as, A quo quum quareretur, quid maxime expediret, respondit. Cic. Off. 2, 25. When it is thus joined with the protasis, the nominative of the demonstrative is supplied with the apodosis from another case of the relative in the protasis, as, in the preceding passage, from the abbative. But for the sake of emphasis the demonstrative may be expressed, and frequently, also, for the sake of clearness; as, Qui mos quam a postiriorthus non esset ritentus, Archistic eum révienit. Cic. de Fin. 2, 1. The accusative is sometimes to be supplied; as, Qui (Hirāclītus) quōniam intelligi nolait, ômittāmus. Cic. N. D. 3, 14. When the demonstrative precedes, and is followed by a proposition consisting of two members, the relative is attached to the prota-

sis, which is placed first, and not to the leading clause or apodosis; as, Easuais Pompeio, quibus ille si părnisset, Clesar tantas ôpes, quantus nunc habet, non habêret. Cic. Farn. 6, 6. Noli adversus eos me relle ducere, cum quibus ne contra te arma ferrem, Haliam réliqui. Nep. Att. 4.

- (3.) Where in English we use 'however' with the relative; as, He promised me many things, which, however, he did not perform, the Latins made use of the demonstrative with sed or rêrum, or the relative alone implying the adversative conjunction; as, multa mihi primisit, sed as non prestitit, or, quæ non prestitit, but not quæ autem on quæ vêro. Que autem and qui vêro are used however in protases, where the relative retains its relative meaning, and there is a corresponding demonstrative in the apodosis; as, Qui autem omnia böna a se ipsis pétunt, iis nihil málum ridéri pôtest, quod nätüræ nécessitas afférat. Cic. de Sen. 2.
- (4) In double relative clauses, especially where the cases are different, Ciero frequently for the second relative clause substitutes the demonstrative; as, Scd ipsius in mente insidebut species pulchritadinis extmia quædam, quam intuens, in eique defixus, ad, etc. for et in quā. Cic. Orat. 2. And sometimes even when the cases are the same; as, Quem Philanten vénisse férunt, eumque cum Leonte disséruisse quædam. Cic. Tusc. 5, 3; where et alone would have been sufficient.
- (5.) From this tendency to connect sentences by relatives arose the use of quod before certain conjunctions merely as a copulative. See § 206, (14.)
- (6) Noque or nee is much used by Latin writers instead of et and a negation, and may be so used in all cases except when the negative belongs to one particular word; see § 278, R. 9. Noque or nee is added to enim, vero, and tenen, where we cannot use 'and.' To these negative expressions a second negative is often joined, in which case neque enim non is equivalent to nam; non vero non, to adque ettion, a stronger et; nee timen non, to addimen.

# ANALYSIS.

- § 281. I. The analysis of a complex or a compound sentence consists in dividing it into its several component propositions, and pointing out their relation to each other.
- In resolving a sentence into its component clauses, the participial constructions equivalent to clauses should be mentioned, and ellipses be supplied. See § 203, 4; § 274, 3; and § 257.
- In a continued discourse the connection and relation of the successive sentences also should be specified.

# Rules for the Analysis of Complex and Compound Sentences.

- (1.) State whether the sentence is complex or compound. § 201, 11, 12.
- (2.) If complex, (1) specify the principal and subordinate chuses. (2) Specify the class to which the subordinate proposition belongs, (§ 201, 7), and (3), its connective, and the class to which such connective belongs, (§ 201, 8 and 9.)
- (3.) If compound, specify the principal propositions, with their subordinates, if any they have, as in the case of complex sentences.
- II. The analysis of a proposition or simple sentence consists in distinguishing the subject from the predicate, and, in case either of them be compound, in pointing out the simple subjects or predicates of which it is composed, and, if complex, in specifying the several modifiers, whether of the essential or subordinate parts.

### Rules for the Analysis of a Simple Sentence.

1. Divide it into two parts—the subject and the predicate, § 201, 1—8. If these are simple, the analysis is complete, but if either is compound:—

2. Specify the simple subjects or predicates of which the compound consists.—If either is complex:—

 Point out the grammatical subject, and the words, phrases, etc. directly modifying it.

4. Point out the words, phrases, etc., which modify the direct modifiers of the grammatical subject, and those which modify them, and so on successively, until the relation of each of the words composing the logical subject is specified.

5. Point out the grammatical predicate, and the words, phrases, etc., directly modifying it.

6. Point out the words, phrases, etc., which modify the direct modifiers of the grammatical predicate, and those which modify them, and so on successively, until the relation of each of the words composing the logical predicate is specified.

#### PARSING.

III. Parsing consists in resolving a proposition into the parts of speech of which it is composed, tracing the derivation of each word, and giving the rules of formation and construction applicable to it.

### Rules for Parsing.

- 1. Name the part of speech to which each word belongs, including the subdivision in which it is found.
  - 2. If it is an inflected word:-
  - (1.) Name its root or crude form, and decline, compare, or conjugate it.
- (2.) If it is a noun or pronoun, tell its gender, number and case:—if in the nominative or in the accusative with the infinitive, tell its verb:—if in an oblique case depending on some other word, tell the word on which its case depends.
- (3.) If it is an adjective, adjective-pronoun, or participle, tell the word which it modifies.
- (4.) If it is a finite verb or an infinitive with the accusative, tell its voice, mood, tense, number, person, and subject.
  - 3. If it is a conjunction, tell its class and what it connects.
  - 4. If it is a preposition, tell the words whose relation is expressed by it.
  - 5. If it is an adverb, tell its class and what it qualifies.
- Prove the correctness of each step of the process by quoting the definition or rule of formation or construction on which it depends.

Note. The words constituting a proposition are most conveniently parsed in that order in which they are arranged in analysis.

### Examples of Analysis and Parsing.

### 1. Equus currit, The horse runs.

Analysis. This is a simple sentence: its subject is *equus*, its predicate is *currit*, both of which are simple. See § 201, 1-3; § 202, 2; and § 203, 2.

Parsing. Equas is a common noun, § 26, 1 and 3; of the 2d decl., § 38; mase, gender, § 28, 1; third person, § 35, 2; its root is  $\epsilon qu$ —, § 40, 10; decline it, § 46; it is in the nominative case, singular number, § 35, 1, (b.); the subject of currit, § 209, (a.)—Currit is a neuter verb, § 141, 11; of the 3d conjugation, § 149, 2; from curror, its principal parts are curro, utcurrit, cursum, currere, § 151, 4; it is from the first root curr—; give the formations of that root, § 151, 1; it is in the active voice, § 142, 1; indicative mood, § 143, 1; present tense, § 145, 1; third person, § 147; singular number, § 146; agreeing with its subject-nominative  $\epsilon quas, § 209, (b.)$ 

Note. The questions to be asked in parsing squas are such as these, Why is squas a noun? Why a common noun? Why of the second declension? Why masculine? etc.—In parsing currit, the questions are, Why is currit a verb? Why a neuter verb? Why of the third conjugation? Which are the principal parts of a verb? Of what does the first root of a verb consist? What parts of a verb are derived from the first root? etc. The answer in each case may be found by consulting the etymological rules and definitions.

2. Sævius ventis ägitātur ingens pīnus, The great pine is more violently shaken by the winds. Hor.

Analysis. This also is a simple sentence:—its subject is ingens pinus, its predicate serius ventis āgitātur; both of which are complex, § 201, 10, § 202, 6, and § 203, 5.

The grammatical subject is  $p\bar{\imath}nus$ , the pine; this is modified by ingens, great, § 201, 2, § 202, 2, and § 202, 6, (3.)

The grammatical predicate is agitatur, is shaken; this is modified by two independent modifiers, sacrius, more violently, and ventis, by the winds, § 208, II. 3, Rem., § 203, I. 1, (2), and (3.)

Parsing. Pinus is a common noun, § 26, 1 and 3; of the 2d and 4th declensions, § 38 and § 99; feminine gender, § 29, 2; 3d person, § 35, 2; from the root  $pin_{-}$ , § 40, 10; (decline it both in the 2d and 4th declensions);—it is found in the singular number, § 35, 1, and the nominative case, the subject of agitatur, § 209, (a.)

Ingens is a qualifying adjective of quantity, § 104, 4, and § 205, N. 1; of the 3d decl., § 105, 1, and § 38; of one termination, § 108, and § 111; from the root ingent., § 40, 10; (decline it like presents, § 111, but with only in the ablative, § 113, Exc. 3,);—it is found in the singular number, feminine gender, § 26, R. 4;

and nominative case, agreeing with its noun pinus, § 205.

Agilātur is an active frequentative verb, § 141, 1, and § 187, II. 1; of the 1st conjugation, § 149, 2; from the first root of its primitive \$\delta g\_0\$, § 187, II. 1, (b.); (name its principal parts in both voices, see § 151, 4; and give the conjugation of the passive voice, indicative mood, present tense, see § 156,);—it is found in the singular number, § 146; third person, § 147; agreeing with its subject-nominative pinus, § 209, (b.)

Serius is a derivative adverb of manner, § 190, 2-4; in the comparative degree, from the positive serie or seriter, which is derived from the adjective serves, § 194, 1 and 2, and § 192, II. 1, and Exc. 1 and 2; modifying the verb

ăgitătur, by expressing its degree, § 277.

Ventis is a common noun, § 26, 1 and 3; of the 2d declension, § 38; masculine gender, § 46; from the root rent-, § 40, 10; (decline it);—it is found in the plural number, § 35, 1; ablative case, modifying ägitätur by denoting its means or instrument, § 247.

 Mühridätes, duārum et vigini gentium rex, tötidem linguis jūra dixit, Mithridates, king of twenty-two nations, pronounced judicial decisions in as many languages. Plin.

Analysis. This also is a simple sontence; its subject is Mithridates, duarum et riginti gentium rex, its predicate is totidem linguis jūra dixit; both of which are complex, § 201, 10, § 202, 6, and § 203, 5.

The grammatical subject is Mithridates; this is modified directly by rex, § 202, I. (1.)

Rex is limited by gentium, § 202, I. 1, (2.)

Gentium is limited by the compound addition duarum and viginti connected

coordinately by et, § 202, III. 3.

The grammatical predicate is dixit; this is limited by jura and linguis, the former a simple, the latter a complex addition, as it is modified by totidem, § 203, I. 1, (2.) and II. 1.

Parsing. Mithridates is a proper noun, § 26, 2; of the third declension, § 38; masculine gender, § 28, 1; from the root Mithridat-, § 40, 10; genitive Mithridatis, § 73, 1; (decline it in the singular number only, § 95, (a.);—it is

found in the nominative case, the subject of dixit, § 209, (a.)

Notice in the nonmative case, the surject of  $acat, y \ge v_0$ ,  $acat, y \ge v_0$ ,  $acat, y \ge v_0$ . Rex is a common non—third declension,  $y \ge v_0$ ,  $acat, y \ge v_0$ . If from the root  $rig_{-}$ ,  $acat, y \ge v_0$ , a

cline it); -it is found in the plural number-genitive case, § 83, II. 3; limiting

rex subjectively, § 211 and R. 2.

Duārum is a numeral adjective, § 104, 5; of the cardinal kind, § 117; from duo, dua, duo; from the root du-; (decline it, § 118, 1,);-it is found in the plural number, § 118, 2; feminine gender, genitive case, § 26, R. 4; agreeing with its noun gentium, \ 205.

Et is a copulative conjunction, § 198, 1, connecting duarum and riginti, § 278. Viginti is a numeral adjective of the cardinal kind, indeclinable, § 118, 1;

limiting gentium, § 205.

Dixit is an active verb, § 141, I.; of the third conjugation, § 149, 2; from dico, (give the principal parts in the active voice, and its first, second, and third roots, § 150, 4, and § 171, 1;) it is formed from the second root dix-, (give the formations of the second root); -it is found in the active voice, § 141, 1; indicative mood, § 143, 1; perfect indefinite tense, § 145, IV. and Rem.; singular number, third person, agreeing with Mithridates, § 209, (b.)

Jūra is a common noun, of the third declension, from jus, root jūr-, § 56, L. R. 1 genitive jūris, § 76, Exc. 3; nenter gender, § 66; (decline it):—it is found

in the plural number, accusative case, § 40, 8; the object of dicit, § 220. Linguis is a common noun, of the first declension, fermining gender, from Lingua, root lingu-, (decline it)—found in the plural number, ablative case, after dixit. § 247.

Totidem is a demonstrative pronominal adjective, § 139, 5, (2.) and (3.); indeclinable, § 115, 4; it is in the ablative plural, feminine gender, limiting linguis, § 205.

 Pausănias, quum sēmiānīmis de templo ēlātus esset, confestim ānīmam efflavit. Nep. Paus. 4.

Analysis. This is a complex sentence, § 201, 11; consisting of two members, which are so arranged as to constitute a period, § 280, 1.

The principal proposition is, Pausanias confestim animam efflavit, § 201, 5. The subordinate proposition is, quam (is) semiantmis de templo élatus esset,

6 201, 6.

The leading proposition has a simple subject, Pausanias, § 202, 2, and a complex predicate, confestim animam efflavit, § 203, 3; in which efflavit is the grammatical predicate, § 203, 2; which is modified by confestim and animum, § 203, I. 1, (2.) and (3.), and II. R. 2., and also by the adverbial chause quum sēmianimis, etc. § 201, 6 and 7, and § 203, I. 3.

The subordinate proposition, which is connected to the leading clause by the subordinate conjunction quum, § 201, 9, has a simple subject, viz. is understood, and a complex predicate, semianimis, de templo elatus esset, § 203, 3 .-The grammatical predicate is elitus esset, § 203, 2; which is modified by semia-nimis, § 203, I. 1, (1.), and de templo, § 203, I. 2, and II. Rem. 2.

Parsing. Pausămias, a Greek proper noun, § 26, 2;—1st decl., §§ 41 and 44; masc. gender, § 28, 1; root Pausāni—; found in sing. num., nom. case, the subject of efflării, § 209, (a.)

Confestim, an adv. of time § 190, 3; limiting efflavit, § 277.

Animam is a com. noun of 1st decl., fem. gender, § 41; from anima, root anima; (decline it);—it is found in the sing. num., acc. case, the object of

efflárit, 6 229

Efflicit, an act. verb, 1st conj., from efflo, compounded of ex and flo, \$196, 6; give the principal parts in the act. voice and the three roots;—it is formed from the second root; (give the formations of that root); in the active voice, ind. mood, perfect indefinite tense, sing. num., 3d pers., agreeing with Pausinias, \$209, (b.)

Quim is a temporal conjunction, § 198, 10; connecting the dependent to the

principal clause, § 278.

Similarims is a predicate adj., of the 3d decl., of two terminations, § 109; (decline it).—it is in the sing, num., masc. gend., nom. case, agreeing with is understood, § 210, R. 1, (a.)

De is a preposition, expressing the relation between ēlātus esset and templo, § 195.

3 130

Templo is a com. noun, 2d decl., neut. gend., from templum, root templ-; (de-

cline it);-in the sing. num., abl. case, after de, § 241.

- Elâtus esset is an irregular active verb, of the third conjugation, § 179; from effero, compounded of ex and fero, § 196, 6; (see fêro and compounds, § 172); (give the principal parts in both voices, and the 1st and 3d roots),—it is formed from the third root, êlât-, (give the formations of that root in the passive voice); in the subjunctive mood, pluperfect tense, § 145, V.; sing, num., third person, agreeing with is understood referring to Pausânias, § 209, (b.)
- 5. Romāna pūbes, sēdāto tandem pāvore, postquam ex tam turbūdo die sērēna et tranquilla lux rēdiit, ūbi vācuam sēdem rēgiam vīdit, etsi sātis crēdēbat patrībus, qui proxīmi stētērant, sublimem raptum procellā; tāmen, vēlut orbūtāis mētu icta, mæstum ālīquamdiu silentium obtīnuit. Liv. 1, 16.
- Analysis. This is a complex sentence, whose clauses constitute a period, § 280. It is composed of the following members or clauses:—
- Römäna pübes [tämen] næstum äliquandiu silentium obtinuit. This is the leading clause. The following are dependent clauses.

2. vėlut orbitātis mētu icta,

- 3. sēdāto tandem pāvore,
- postquam ex tam turbido die serena et tranquilla lux rediit,
   übi vacuam sedem regiam vidit,

etsi sătis crēdēbat patribus,

7. qui proximi stětěrant,

8. sublimem raptum procella.

Note 1. In the preceding clauses the predicates are printed in Italics.

Nore 2. The connective of the 1st clause, is the adversative timen, which is inserted on account of etsi intervening between the principal subject and predicate. The connective of the 2d clause is vilut, of the 4th postquam, of the 5th ubi, of the 6th etsi, followed by a clause constituting the protasis, and of the 7th qui. The 3d and 8th clause shave no connectives.

(1.) The grammatical subject of the leading clause is pūbes, which is limited by Römāna.—The grammatical predicate is obtānut, which is limited by ôtiquandle and stlentium, and also either directly or indirectly by all the dependent clauses. Silentium is itself modified by mastum.

The second, third, fourth, fifth, and sixth clauses are used adverbially to denote the time and other circumstances modifying the principal predicate

silentium obtinuit, § 201, 7.

(2.) The second is a participial clause, equivalent to relut (ea scil. pubes)

orbitātis mētu ictu esset, § 274, 8, (a.)
(3.) The third clause is also participial, and is equivalent to quum tandem pāror sēdātus esset, § 257, R. 1; and hence pārore represents the subject, and

sēdāto taudem the predicate—the former being simple, the latter complex.
(4.) The grammatical subject of the 4th clause, which is connected to the leading clause by postquam, § 201, 9, is lux, which is modified by serena and tranquilla.—The grammatical predicate is rédiit, which is modified by postquam

and ex tom turbido die, § 203, I. 1, (3.), and II. I.

(5.) The grammatical subject of the fifth clause is ea understood.—The grammatical predicate is vidit, which is modified by übi and vicuam sedem

grammatical predicate is vilit, which is modified by ubs and vacuam sedem vegiam, § 203, l. 1, (3.) and II. 1.

(6.) The grammatical subject of the sixth clause also is ea. Its grammati-

cal prediente is crédébat, which is modified by sâtis and patribus, § 203, 1. (2.) and (3.), and by the 8th clause, II. 3.

(7.) The grammatical subject of the seventh clause is qui. Its grammatical subject of the seventh clause is qui. Its grammatical projects is settlement, the second of the property is 203, 1 (1.), by the one old-

predicate is sittle-rant, which is modified by proctoni, § 203, I. (1.) It is an adjective clause, modifying patribus, § 201, 7 and 9.

(8.) The grammatical subject of the eighth clause, which has no connective,

§ 202, Rem., is eum, i. e. Kömülum, understood. Its grammatical predicate is ruptum (esse), which is modified by sublimem and procella.

Parsing. Rimina is a patrial adjective, § 104, 10, derived from Rima, § 128, 6, (a.) and (e.); of the 1st and 2d declensions, § 105, 2; fem. gender, sing, number, nom. case, agreeing with pibes, § 205.

 $P\bar{u}bes$ , a collective noun, § 26, 4; 3d decl., fem. gender, § 63; from the root  $p\bar{u}b$ -, § 56, 1. R. 6; genitive  $p\bar{u}bis$ , § 73, 1; (decline it);—found in the nom. sing., the subject of oblimit, § 209, (a.)

Timen, an adversative conjunction, § 198, 9, relating to etsi in the 6th clause. Mestum, a qualifying adj., § 205, N. 1; of the 1st and 2d declensions, neut. gender, sing. num, acc. case, agreeing with silentium.

Aliquandiu, an adverb of time, § 191, II.; compounded of aliquis and diu, § 193, 6; and limiting obtinuit, § 277.

Silentium, a com. noun, 2d decl., neut. gender, § 46; sing. number, acc. case, the object of obtinuit, § 229.

Obtinuit, an active verb, of the 2d conj. § 149, 2; from obtineo, compounded of ob and tineo, see § 168; (give the principal parts in the act. voice, and the formations of the 2d root, § 157 at the end)—found in the active voice, ind. mood, perf. indef. tense, sing, num., 3d person, agreeing with pales, § 209, (b.)

Vélut for rélut si, an adverb, compounded of rel and ut, §193, 10; modifying uta, and obtinuiset understood, (as they would have done if, etc.)

Orbitatis, an abstract noun, § 26, 5; from the primitive orbus, § 101, 1 and 2; 3d decl., fem. gender, § 62; from the root orbitat-, § 56, I, and R. 1; docline it);—found in the sing num, subjective gen. case, limiting meta, § 211.

Mētu, an abstract neun, 4th decl., masc. gen., § 87; sing. num., abl. case, § 247.

\*\* Ata, a perf. part. pass, from the active verb ico, of the 3d conj. (give the principal parts in both voices, and decline the participle);—found in the fem. gen., sing, num., nom. case, agreeing with pābes, § 205.

Sédato, a perfect pass, part, from the active verb sédo, of the 1st conj., § 149, 2; (give the principal parts in both voices, § 151, 4; and decline it, § 105, R. 2.);—found in the masc, gender, sing, num., abl. case, agreeing with parvoice, § 205.

Tindem, an adverb of time, § 191, II.; modifying \*vdite, § 277.

Parere, an abstract noun, § 28, 5, and § 102, 1; (from piece), 3d deel., masc, gen., § 58; yoot piece, § 58, II., and § 70, (deeline it);—found in the sing-

number, abl. case, absolute with sedato, § 257.

Postquam, an adverb of time, compounded of post and quam, § 193, 10; modifying redili, and connecting the 1st and 4th clauses, § 201, 9.

Ex, a preposition, § 195, R. 2.

Tam, an adverb of degree, § 191, R. 2; modifying turbido, § 277.

Turbido, an adjective, agreeing with die.

Die, a common noun, 5th decl., masc. gender, \$ 90, Exc. 1.; sing. number, abl. case, after the prep. ex, § 241.

Serena, an adj., 1st and 2d decls., fem. gen., sing. num., nom. case, agreeing

with lux, \ 205.

Et, a copulative conjunction, § 198, 1; connecting serena and tranquilla, 4 278.

Tranquilla, like serena.

Lux, a common noun, 3d decl., fem. gen., § 62; from the root lac-, § 56, I.,

and R. 2; genitive lūcis, § 78, 2.

Rediit, an irregular neuter verb, of the 4th conj., § 176; from redeo, compounded of eo, § 182, and the inseparable prep. red, § 196, (b.), 3; (give its principal parts);-found in the ind. mood., perf. indef. tense, sing. num., 3d pers., agreeing with lux, § 209, (b.)

Ubi, an adverb of time, and like postquam, a connective, § 201, 9; and modi-

fying vidit, § 277.

Vacuam, an adj., qualifying scdem.

Scidem, a common noun, 3d decl., fem. gen., § 62; from the root scid-, § 56, I., R. 6; genitive sēdis, § 73, 1; (decline it);—found in the sing. num., acc. case, the object of the transitive verb vidit, § 229.

Regiam, a denominative adj., § 128, I., 2, (a.); from the primitive rex, agree-

ing with sedem.

Vidit, an active verb, of the 2d conj., (give its principal parts in the active voice, and the formations of the 2d root); found in the active voice, ind. mood. perf. indef. tense, sing. num., 3d pers., agreeing with ea, i. e. pubes, understood.

Etsi, a concessive conjunction, § 198, 4; corresponding to the correlative ad-

versative conj. tamen, § 198, 4, R. and 9.

Sătis, an adverb of degree, § 191, III., and R. 2; modifying crēdēbat, § 277. Credebat, an act. verb, § 141, I.; 3d conj., (give the principal parts in the active voice and the formations of the 1st root); -found in the act. voice, ind. mood, imperfect tense, sing. num., 3d person, agreeing with ea, scil. pubes, understood.

Patribus, a common noun, § 26, 3; 3d decl., from the root patr-, § 56, II., R. 3; gen. patris, § 71; masc. gender, § 28, 1; plur. num., dat. case, depending

on credebat, § 223, R. 2.

Qui, the subject of the 7th clause, is a relative pronoun, § 136; masc. gender, plur. num., agreeing with its antecedent patribus, § 206, R. 19, (a.); and is nominative to steterant, § 209, (a.)

Proximi, an adj. of the superlative degree, § 126, 1, (compare it); of the 1st and 2d decis., masc. gen., plur. num., nom. case, agreeing with qui, § 205, § 210,

R. 1, (a.) and R. 3, (2.)

Stětěrant, a neuter verb, 1st conj., irregular in its 2d root, § 165; (give its principal parts, and the formations of the 2d root);-found in the act. voice, ind. mood, plnp. tense, § 145, V.; 3d person plural, agreeing with its subject qui, § 209, (b.)

Sublimem, an adj., of the 3d decl., and two terminations, § 109; masc. gen., sing. num., acc. case, agreeing with eum, (i. e. Romulum,) understood, and

modifying also raptum esse, § 205, R. 15.

Raptum (esse), an act. verb, 3d conj.; (give the principal parts in both voices and the formations of the 3d root in the passive voice)-found in the pass. voice, inf. mood, perf. tense; but, following the imperfect, it has the meaning of a pluperfect, § 268, 2, and § 145, V.; depending on credebat, § 272.

Procella, a com. noun, 1st decl., fem. gen., sing. num., abl. case, § 247.

### PROSODY.

§ 282. Prosody treats of the quantity of syllables, and the laws of versification.

### QUANTITY.

- 1. The quantity of a syllable is the relative time occupied in pronouncing it. Cf. § 13.
  - 2. A syllable is either short, long, or common.
- (a.) The time occupied in pronouncing a short syllable is called a *mora* or time.
- (b.) A long syllable requires two moræ or double the time occupied in pronouncing a short one; as, ămārē.
- (c.) A common syllable is one which, in poetry, may be made either long or short; as the middle syllable of těněbræ.
- 3. The quantity of a syllable is either natural or accidental;—natural, when it depends on the nature of its vowel; accidental, when it depends on its position.

Thus the e in resisto is short by nature; while in restite it is long by its position, since it is followed by two consonants: § 283, IV. On the contrary, the e in declico is naturally long, but in deerro it is made short by being placed before a vowel: § 283, I.

4. The quantity of syllables is determined either by certain established rules, or by the authority of the poets.

Thus it is poetic usage alone that determines the quantity of the first syllables of the following words, viz. māder, frāder, prācus, dāco, dāco; pater, ācus, cādo, māneo, grācis, etc.; and hence the quantity of such syllables can be ascertained by practice only or by consulting the gradus or lexicon.

5. The rules of quantity are either general or special. The former apply alike to all the syllables of a word, the latter to particular syllables.

### GENERAL RULES.

§ 283. I. (a.) A vowel before another vowel, or a diphthong, is short; as, e in  $m\check{e}us$ , i in  $patr\check{x}e$ . Thus,

Conscia mens recti fămæ mendācia ridet. Ovid. F. 4, 311. Ipse čiiam eximiæ laudis succensus amore. Virg. A. 7, 496.

(b.) So also when h comes between the vowels, since h is accounted only a breathing; as, nihil: (see § 2, 6.) Thus,

De nihilo nihil, in nihilum nll posse reverti. Pers. 4, 84.

Exc. 1. (a.)  $Fi_0$  has the i long, except in fit and when followed by er; as fiunt,  $fi\bar{e}bam$ . Thus,

Omnia jam fiant, fieri quæ posse negabam. Ovid. Tr. 1, 8, 7.

(b.) It is sometimes found long even before er; as, fièret. Ter.; fièri. Plaut: and, on the contrary, Prudentius has fiò with i short.

Exc. 2. (a.) E is long in the termination of the genitive and dative of the fifth declension, when preceded and followed by i; as,  $f\ddot{a}cici$ . Thus,

Non rádii sölis, něque lūcīda tēla diči. Lucr. 1, 148.

(b.) In spei, rei, and fidei, e is short.

NOTE. In Lucretius, the e of rei is, in a few cases, long, and that of fider is lengthened once in Lucretius and once in a line of Ennius.

Exc. 3. (a.) A is long in the penult of old genitives in a of the first declension; as, aula, picta. Cf. § 43, 1.

(b.) A and e are also long in proper names in arus, erus, or era; as, Cūrus, Pompērus, Aquilēra; and in the adjectives  $Gr\bar{u}$ rus and  $V\bar{e}$ rus. Thus,

Æthěrium sensum, atque aurāi simplīcis iguem. Virg. A. 6, 747. Accīpe, Pompēi, deductum carmen ab illo. Ovid. Pont. 4, 1, 1. Neenon cum Vēnētis Aquūlēia perfūrit armis. Sil. 8, 606.

Exc. 4. (a.) I is common in genitives in ius; as,  $\bar{u}n\bar{t}us$ ,  $ill\bar{t}us$ . Thus,

Illius et nītīdo stillent unguenta căpillo. Tibull, 1, 7, 51. Illius pūro dēstillent tempora nardo. Id. 2, 2, 7.

(b.) But i in the genitive of alter is commonly short; and in that of alius it is always long.

Exc. 5. The first vowel of  $\bar{e}heu$  is long; that of  $D\bar{t}\bar{a}na$ ,  $\bar{t}o$ , and  $\bar{o}he$ , is common.

Exc. 6. Greek words retain their original quantities, and hence, in many *Greek* words, a vowel is long, though immediately followed by another vowel; as,

ãer, Achāia, Achēlōüs, dia, ēos, Lāertes, and Greek words having in the original a long e or o (η or ω.) See also § 293, 3.

(1.) Words which, in Greek, are written with ei (u) before a vowel, and in Latin with a single e or i, have the e or i long; as, Ænñas, Alexandria, Cassio-pea, Cito, Dārius, ēlēņā, Oidatea, Medai, Medai, Medai, Medai, Peinelopēa, Thāta, Atrides.

pēa, Clio, Dārias, ēlēgia, Gālātēa, Mēdēa, Maŭsolēum, Pēnēlipēa, Thālīa, Atrides. Hence, most adjectives in eus, formed from Greek proper names, have the e long; as, Cŷdhēreus, Pēlopēus; and the e remains long when eī is restored; as, Pēlopēta.

Exc. Acādēmia, chōrea, Mālea, plātea, and some patronymics and patrials in eis; as, Nēreis, have the penult common.

(2.) Greek genitives in eos, and accusatives in ea, from nominatives in eus, generally shorten the ε is so, Orphèos, Orphèos,—but the ε is sometimes lengthened by the fonic dialect; as, Cepheos, Ilionéa.

(3.) Greek words in ais, ois, ains, eins, oins, aon, and ion, generally lengthen the first vowel; as, Năis, Minōis, Grānus, Nērētus, Minōius, Micliāon, Izion. But Thēbāis, Simois, Phāon, Deucâlten, Pygmālton, and many others, shorten the former vowel.

NOTE 1. Greek words in non and ion, with o short in the genitive, have the penult long; but with o long in the genitive, they have it short; as, Amythaon, -donis; Deucation, -onis.

NOTE 2. In Greek proper names in ens (gen. eos), as Orpheus, the en in the nominative is always a diphthong in the original, and, with very few exceptions, in the Latin poets.

II. A diphthong is long; as, aurum, fanus, Eubaa, Pompeius, Orpheu. Thus,

Infernique lácus, Æāæque insüla Circæ. Virg. A. 3. 386. Thēsauros ignotum argenti pondus et āuri. Id. A. 1. 359. Harpyiæque colunt ālēā, Phineïa postquam. Id. A. 3, 212.

Exc. 1. Præ, in composition, is short before a vowel; as, prœustus, præucus. Thus,

Nec totă tămen ille prior preeunte cărină. Virg. A. 5, 186.

In Statius, and Sidonius Apollinaris, it is found long.

Exc. 2. A diphthong at the end of a word, when the next word begins with a vowel, is sometimes made short; as,

Insălie Ionio in magno, quas dira Celaeno. Virg. A. 3, 211.

III. A syllable formed by contraction is long; as, alius for alius; cogo for coogo; nil for nihil; junior for jucinior. Thus, Titire coge pocus, tu post carecta latebas. Virg. E. 3, 20.

IV. A vowel naturally short, before two consonants, a double consonant, or the letter j, is long by position; as,  $\bar{a}rma$ ,  $b\bar{e}llum$ ,  $\bar{a}xis$ ,  $g\bar{a}za$ ,  $m\bar{a}jor$ . Thus,

Pascère ŏpōrtet öves dēdāctum dieēre cārmen. Virg. E. 6, 5. Nēt migrītis vincet cōrējos; nēt laurea Phobi. Id. E. 7, 64. At nobis, Paz alma, vēni, spicamque tēnēto. Tibull. 1, 10, 67. Rara jūvant: prīmis sic mājor grātia pōmis. Mart. 4, 29, 3.

Note 1. A vowel (other than i) before j is in reality lengthened by forming a diphthong with it, since i and j are in fact but one letter. Thus major is equivalent to  $ma^i - or$ , which would be pronounced  $ma^i - or$ . See  $\S$  9, 1.

Exc. I. The compounds of jugum have i short before j; as, bijugus, quādrijugus. Thus,

Intereā bijūgis infert se Lūcagus albis. Virg. A. 10, 575.

REMARK. The vowel is long by position, when either one or both of the consonants is in the same word with it; but when both stand at the beginning of the following word, the vowel is either long or short; as,

Tolle moras; sempēr nocuti differre paratis. Lucan. 1, 281. Ferte cīti ferrūm; date tēlā; scandite mūros. Virg. A. 9, 37. Ne tamen ignorēt, quæ sīt sententia scripto. Ovid.

Note 2. A short vowel at the end of a word, before an initial double consonant or j in the following word, is not lengthened.

Note 3. In the comic poets a vowel frequently remains short though followed by two consonants, especially if only one of them is in the same word.

Exc. 2. A vowel naturally short, before a mute followed by a liquid, is common; as, ūgris, phārētra, vòlūcris, pōplūtes, cōchlea. Thus,

Et prīmo sīmīlis vilācri, mox vēra vilācris. Ovid. M. 13. 607. Nātum ante ōra pātris, pātrem qui obtruncat ad āras. Virg. A. 2, 663. Nox tenebras profert, Phœbus fūgat inde tēnebras. Ovid.

REM. 1. If the vowel before a mute and liquid is naturally long, it continues so; as, sålūbris, ambūlācrum.

REM. 2. In compound words, of which the former part ends with a mute, and the there begins with a liquid, a short word before the mute is made long by position; as, ābluo, ābruo, siblico, quamibirem.

REM. 3. A mute and liquid at the beginning of a word seldom lengthen the short vowel of the preceding word, except in the arsis of a foot; as,

Terrasque tractusque maris cœlumque profundum. Virg. E. 4, 51.

Rem. 4. In Latin words, only the liquids l and r following a mute render the preceding short vowel common; but, in words of Greek origin, m and n after a mute have the same effect, as in  $T\tilde{c}$ emessa,  $Pr\tilde{c}$ ene,  $C\tilde{c}$ enus.

#### SPECIAL RULES.

#### FIRST AND MIDDLE SYLLABLES.

#### I. DERIVATIVE WORDS.

§ 284. Derivative words retain the quantity of their primitives: as.

by conjugation, amo, amat, amabat, amavi, amatus, etc.; by declension, amor, amoris, amori, amoribus, etc.; so, animal, animatus, from anima; genebundus, from genere; familia, from familius; maternus, from mater; propinquus, from prépe.

Note 1. Lār, pār, sāl, and pēs in declension shorten the vowel of the nominative; as, sālis, pēdis, etc.

NOTE 2. The vowel of the primitive is sometimes lengthened or shortened in the derivative by the addition or removal of a consonant.

REM. 1. Derivatives from increasing nouns of the second or third declension agree in quantity with the increment of their primitives; as,

pučritia, from pučri; virgineus, from virginis; sălūber, from sălūtis.

REM. 2. In verbs, the vowels of the derived tenses and of derivative words agree in quantity with the verbal root from which they are formed; as,

mövebam, mövebo, möveam, möverem, möve, mövere, mövers, möveadus, from möv, the root of the present, with δ short;—möveram, möveram, mövissem, mövero, mövisse, from möv, the root of the perfect, with δ long; mötarus and mötus;—möto, möto, mötor, and mötus, -ās, from möt, the root of the supine, with δ also long.

REM. 3. (a.) Solidium and rolidium from solvo and volvo have the first syllable short, as if from solvo, volvo. So, from gigno come génui, génitum, as if from géno; and pôtui, from poits sum (possum).

(b.) The a in da, imperative of do, is long, though short in other parts of the verb. See § 294, 2.

(c.) The o in posui and positum is short, though long in pono.

Exc. 1. Perfects and supines of two syllables have the first syllable long, even when that of the present is short; as,

vēni, vīdi, fēci, from vēnio, video, făcio; cāsum, mõtum, vīsum, from cădo, mõveo, video.

Note 3. Such perfects are supposed to have been formed either by the contraction of reduplicated syllables, as vēnio, perf. vēvēni, by syncope vēčni, by crasis vēni, or by the omission of a consonant, as video, perf. vidši, by syncope vēdi, the vowel retaining the quantity which it had by position.

Note 4. The long vowel of dissyllabic supines probably arose in like manner from syncope and contraction; as, tideo, vidsum, by syncope visum; môveo,

mövitum, by syncope mõitum, by contraction mõtum.

(1.) (a.) These seven perfects have the first syllable short:—bibi, dědi, fidi, (from findo), scidi, stěti, stiti, tüli. So also percüli, from percello.

(b.) The first syllable is also short before a vowel (§ 283, I.); as, rui.

(2.) (a.) These ten supines have the first syllable short:—cītum, (from cieo), dātum, itum, lītum, quītum, rātum, rātum, sātum, sītum, and stātum.

(b.) So, also, had the obsolete fătum, from făŏ, whence comes fătūrus.

Exc. 2. (a.) Reduplicated polysyllabic perfects have the first two syllables short; as,

cěcidi, cěcini, tětigi, didici, from cădo, căno, tango, and disco.

(b.) The second syllable of reduplicated perfects is sometimes made long by position; as, mômôrdi, têtenti.—Cêreldi from cœdo, and pêpêdî from pêdo, retaining the quantity of their first root also have the second syllable long.
Exc. 3. Desiderative verbs in urio have the u short, though, in the third

root of the verbs from which they are formed, it is long; as, cænātārio from cænātā, the third root of cæno. So partūrio, ēsūrio, nuptūrio.

Exc. 4. Frequentative verbs, formed from the third root of verbs of the first

conjugation, have the i short; as, clamito, rolito. See § 187, II. 1.

Exc. 5. A few other derivatives deviate from the quantity of their primi-

Some have a long vowel from a short one in the primitive.

Dēni, from děcem.
Fömes and | from
Fömentum, f föveo.
Hūmānus, from liŏmo.
Lāterna, from lāteo,
Lītēra from līno.
Lex (lēgis), from lēgo.

Such are,

Mūbilis, from moveo. Persona, from persono. Rēgūla and ) from Rex (rēgis), ) rēgo. Sēcius, from sēcus. Sēdes, from sēcus. Sēmen, from sēro. Stīpendium, from stips (stīpis). Suspīcio, ōnis, from suspīcor. Tēgūla, from těgo.

2. Some have a short vowel from a long one in the primitive. Such are,

Dicax, from dico.
Dux (dücis), from düco.
Fides, from fido.
Låbo, from läbor, dep. v.
Lücerna, from lüceo.

Mölestus, from möles. Nato, from nātu. sup. Noto, from nötu. sup. ŏdium, from ödi. Quāsillus, from quālus. Săgax, from săgio. Sŏpor, from sŏpio. Vădum, from vădo. Vŏco, from vox (vŏcis.) NOTE 1. Discrius comes regularly (by syncope) from dissertus, the prefix disbeing short, § 299, 1. Cf. dirimo and diribeo, where s is changed to r. See § 196, (b. 2.

Note 2. Some other words might, perhaps, with propriety be added to these lists; but, in regard to the derivation of most of them, grammarians are not entirely agreed.

REMARK 1. Some of these irregularities seem to have arisen from the influence of syncope and crasis. Thus mobilis may have been morelbilis; motum, motulum, etc.

REM. 2. Sometimes the rowel in the derived word being naturally short, is restored to its proper quantity by removing one of the consonants which, in the primitive, made it long by position; as, nic, nicies. So, when the vowel of the primitive is naturally long, but has been made short before another vowel, it is sometimes restored to its original quantity by the insertion of a consonant; as, hibernus, from hiems.

REM. 3. The first syllable in hquidus is supposed to be common, as coming either from hquor or hqueo; as,

Crassaque conveniant liquidis, et liquida crassis. Lucr. 4, 1255.

#### II. COMPOUND WORDS.

§ 285. 1. Compound words retain the quantity of the words which compose them; as,

dēféro, of de and fero; adoro, of ad and oro. So aberior, amereo, circumeo, comedo, enter, produco, saborno.

2. The change of a vowel or a diphthong in forming the compound does not alter its quantity; as,

concido, from cado; concido, from cado; ērigo, from rēgo; reclādo, from claudo; iniquus, from equus.

Exc. 1. A long syllable in the simple word becomes short in the following compounds:—aynitus and continues from notus; differ and pipero, from juro; hodde, from hot die: nihi um and nihil, from hilum; causidicus, and other compounds ending in dieus, from dico.

Exc. 2. Imbevillus, from bicillum, has the second syllable long. The participle ambitus has the penult long from itum, but the nonns ambitus and ambitio follow the rule.

Exc. 3. Innüba, prönüba, and subnüba, from nübo, have u short; but in connubium, it is common.

Exc. 4. O final, in the compounds of do and sto, is common, though long in the simple verbs. § 294, (a.)

Note 1. Prepositions of one syllable, which end in a rowel, are long (§ 294, (a.); those which end in a single consonant are short (§ 299, 1.)—Trā from trans is long; as, trādo, trādāco.

Exc. 5. Pro, in the following compounds, is short:—prof sinus, prof sin, profecto, prof estus, prof sico, prof in profess, promeptis, and professus. It is common in procure, profunds, propello, and propino.—Respecting pro in composition before a vowel see § 288, II. Exc. 1.

Rem. 1. The Greek preposition pro (before) is short; as, propheta. In prologus, propôla, and propino, it is common.

Rem. 2. The inseparable prepositions di (for dis) and se are long; as,

diduco, separo. Respecting disertus, see § 284, Exc. 5, 2, N. 1.

REM. 3. (a.) The inseparable preposition re or red is short; as, rěmitto, rěfěro, rědámo.

(b.) Re is sometimes lengthened in religio, reliquia, reliquis, repřit, retülit, rectült, rectüt, rectüt, rectüt, rectüt, rectüt, rectüt, rectüt, rectüt per some oditors double the consonant following re. Cf. § 307, 2. In the impersonal verb refert, re is long, as coming from res.

REM. 4. A ending the former part of a compound word, is long; the other vowels are short; as,

mālo, quāpropter, trādo, (trans do); nēfas, valēdico, hujuscēmodi; biceps, trides, omulpotens, significo; hodie, quandoquidem, philosophus; dūcenti, locāples, Trojagēna; Polydorus, Eurippilus, Thrāsgbūlus.

Exc. 1. A. A is short in quasi, eadem, when not an ablative, and in some Greek compounds; as, catapulta, hexameter.

Exc. 2. E. E is long in crēdo, nēmo, nēquam, nēquāquam, nēquidquam, nēquis, nēquita; mēmet, nēcum, tēcum, sēcum, sēse, vēcors, vēsānus, vēnēf teus, and vēdlīcet;—nlso in words compounded with se for sev or sēmi; as, sēdēcim, sēmestris, sēmodius; but in selibra it is found short in Martial.

Note 2. (a.) The first e in videlicet, as in vide, is sometimes made short. Sec § 295, Exc. 3.

(b.) E is common in some verbs compounded with făcio; as, liquefăcio, patefăcio, rărefăcio, tăbefăcio, tepefăcio.

Exc. 3. 1. (1.) I is long in those compounds in which the first part is declined, (§ 296;) as, quidam, quivis, quilibet, quantivis, quanticumque, tantidem, unique, etdem, reliablice, utrique.

(2.) I is also long in those compounds which may be separated without altering the sense, (§296;) as, lidimagister, siquis, agricultūra.

(3.) I, ending the former part of a compound word, is sometimes made long by contraction; as, tibicen for tibiteen, from tibia and cano. See § 283, III.

(4.) I is long in bigæ, quadrigæ, ilicet, scilicet.

(5.) In idem, when masculine, i is long; but when neuter, it is short. The i of \( \text{when mounter} \) in \( \text{utem} \), when measuring are long. In \( \text{abcumpue}, \) as in \( \text{ub}, i \) is common.

(6.) Compounds of dies have the final i of the former part long; as, biduum, tridium, měridies, quotidie, quotidianus, pridie, postridie.

Nore 3. In Greek words, i, ending the former part of a compound, is short; as,  $Cullim \check{a}chus$ ; unless it comes from the diphthong ei(u), or is made long or common by position.

Exc. 4. O. (1.) In compounds, the final o of contro, intro, retro, and quando (except quandoquidem,) is long; as, controversia, introduco, retrocedo, quandoque. O is long also in dibojue (-quin), and utroque.

(2.) O is long in the compounds of quo and eo; as, quomodo, quocumque, quoman, quolibet, quominus, quocirca, quovis, quoque (i. c. et quo); codem, cone; but in the conjunction quoque, it is short.

(3.) Greek words which are written with an omega (ω) have the o long; as, geometra, Minotaurus, lăgopus.

Exc. 5. U. U is long in Jupiter (Jovis pater), and judico (jus dico).

#### III. INCREMENT OF NOUNS.

§ 286. 1. A noun is said to *increase*, when, in any of its cases, it has more syllables than in the nominative singular; as, pax,  $p\bar{a}cis$ ; sermo,  $serm\bar{o}nis$ . The number of *increments* in any case of a noun is equal to that of its additional syllables.

2. Nonns in general have but one increment in the singular, but *iter*, supellex, compounds of caput ending in ps, and sometimes jecur, have two increments: as.

iter, i-tin-ē-ris; supellex, su-pel-lec-ti-lis; anceps, an-cip-i-tis; jēcur, jē-cīn-

REMARK. The double increase of *iter*, etc., in the singular number arises from their coming from obsolete nominatives, containing a syllable more than those now in use; as, *ither*, etc.

3. The dative and ablative plural of the third declension have one increment more than the genitive singular; as,

rex, Gen. rē-gis, D. and Ab. rēg-i-bus. sermo, — ser-mōn-i-bus. — ser-mōn-i-bus. tter, — i-tin-ē-ris, — tt-ī-nēr-i-bus.

4. The last syllable of a word is never considered as the increment. If a word has but one increment, it is the penult; if two, the antepenult is called the first, and the penult the second; and if three, the syllable before the antepenult is called the first, the antepenult the second, and the penult the third increment; as,

1 1 2 1 2 1 2 3 ser-mo, ser-mō-nis, ser-mōn-i-bus; i-ter, i-tin-e-ris, it-i-ner-i-bus.

5. In the third declension, the quantity of the first increment is the same in all the other eases as in the genitive singular; as,

sermônis, sermôni, sermônem, sermône, sermônes, sermônum, sermônibus. Bôbus, or būbus, from bos, bòris, is lengthened by contraction from bövibus.

NOTE. As adjectives and participles are declined like nouns, the same rules of increment apply to all of them; and so also to pronouns.

#### INCREMENTS OF THE SINGULAR NUMBER.

OF THE FIRST, FOURTH, AND FIFTH DECLENSIONS.

§ 287. 1. When nonns of the first, fourth, and fifth declensions increase in the singular number, the increment consists of a vowel before the final vowel, and its quantity is determined by the first general rule with its exceptions, § 283, 1.

Thus, aura, gen. aurāi, § 283, I. Exc. 3, (a.): fructus, dat. fructŭi, § 283, I. (a.): dies, gen. diei, § 283, I. Exc. 2, (a.)

#### INCREMENTS OF THE SECOND DECLENSION.

2. The increments of the second declension in the singular number are short; as,

gener, generi; sătur, sătări; tener, teneri; vir, viri. Thus,

Ne, pučri, ne tanta ănimis assuescite bella. Virg. A. 6, 833. Monstra sinuut; gčnčros externis afföre ab öris. Id. A. 7, 270.

Exc. The increment of  $\it Iber$  and  $\it Celliber$  is long. For that of genitives in  $\it ius$ , see § 283, Exc. 4.

#### INCREMENTS OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

3. The increments of the third declension and singular number in a and o are long; those in e, i, u, and y, are short; as,

āmmal, āntmālis; audax, audācis; sermo, sermōnis; fērox, fērōcis; ōpus, ōpēris; celer, celēris; miles, miltis; supplex, supplicis; murmur, murmūris; dux, ducis; chlāmys, chlāmydis; Slyx, Slyyis. Thus,

Pronaque cum spectent änimālia cētēra terram. Ovid. M. 1, 84. liaet tum multiplici populos sermône replēbat. Virg. A. 4, 189. Incumbent gēnēris lapsi sarcīer ruinas. M. 6. 4, 24. 89. Quālem virgīneo dēmessum politic florem. Id. A. 11, 68. Adspice, ventsis ēcēdēqrunt murmāris aurse. Id. E. 9, 58.

### Exceptions in Increments in A.

- 1. (a.) Masculines in al and ar (except Car and Nar) increase short; as, Annibal, Annibalis; Amilear, Amilearis.
- (b.) Par and its compounds, and the following—ānas, mas, vas (vādis), baccar, hēpar, jūbar, lar, nectur, and sal—also increase short.
- 2. A, in the increment of nouns in s with a consonant before it, is short; as, daps, dăpis; Arabs, Arăbis.
- 3. Greek nouns in a and as (ădis, ănis, or ătis) increase short; as, lampas, lampādis; Mělas, Mělānis, poēma, poëmātis.
- 4. The following in az increase short:—dbaz, anthraz, Arctophylaz, Ataz, Atrax, climax, coluz, corax, and nycticorax, dropax, fax, harpax, panax, smilax, and styrax.—The increment of Syphaz is doubtful.

### Exceptions in Increments in O.

- 1. O, in the increment of neuter nouns, is short; as,
- marmor, marmórıs; corpus, corpóris; ébur, ébóris. But os (the mouth), and the enuer of couparatives, like their masculine and feminine, increase long. The increment of àdor is common.
- O is short in the increment of Greek nouns in o or on, which, in the oblique cases, have omicron, but long in those which have omiga; as,
- Aēdon, Aēdonis; Agamemnon, Agamemnonis:—Plato, Platonis; Sinon, Sinonis; Sicyon, Sicyonis. Sidon, Orion, and Ægavon, have the increment common.
- 3. (a.) In the increment of gentile nouns in o or on, whether Greek or barbaric, o is generally short; as,
- Mācēdo, Mācedónis. So, Amazones, Aones, Myrmidones, Santones, Saxones, Senones, Teutones, etc.
- (b.) But the following have o long:—Eburônes, Lacônes, Enes, Nasamônes, Suessônes (or -iônes), Vettônes, Burgundiônes. Britones has the o common.
  4. Greek nouns in or increase short; as, Hector, Hectôris; rhētor,
- rhētöris; Agēnor, Agēnoris.
   5. Compounds of pus, (ποῦ, as tripus, pölýpus, Œdipus, and also arbor, mēmor, bos, compos, impos, and lēpus, increase short.
- 6. O, in the increment of nouns in s with a consonant before it, is short; as,

scrobs, scröbis; inops, inopis; Dölöpes. But it is long in the increment of cercops, Cyclops, and hydrops.

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7. The increment of Allobrox, Cappadox, and pracox, is also short.

### Exceptions in Increments in E.

Nouns in en, enis (except Hymen), lengthen their increment;
 as, Siren, Svēnis. So, Anienis, Nēvienis, from Anio and Nēvio, or rather from the obsolete Anien and Nēvienes.

2. Hæres, löcüples, mansues, merces, and quies—also Iber, ver, lex, rex, ālec or ālex (hāl-) narthex and vervex—plebs and seps—increase long.

3. Greek nouns in es and er (except aër and æther) increase long; as, magnes, magnētis; crāter, crātēris.

### Exceptions in Increments in I.

1. Nouns and adjectives in ix, increase long; as, victrix, victricis; fēlix, fēlicis.

Exc. Cülix, Cilix, coxendix, filix, fornix, hystrix, lărix, nix, pix, sălix, strix, and rarely sandix or sandyx, increase short.

Vibex and the following nouns in is increase long:—dis, glis, lis, vis, Nē-sis, Quiris, and Sannis. The increment of Psophis is common.

3. Greek nouns, whose genitive is in inis increase long; as, del-phin, delphīnis; Sālāmis, Sālāmīnis.

### Exceptions in Increments in U.

1. Genitives in udis, uris, and utis, from nominatives in us, have the penult long; as,

p ulus, p lus, tellus, tellurus; virtus, virtutis. But intercus, Ligus and pecus, pecudis, increase short.

Fur, frux, (obs.), lux, and Pollux, increase long.

### Exceptions in Increments in Y.

Greek nouns whose genitive is in ynis, increase long; as, Trā-chyn, Trāchÿnis.

 The increment of bombyx, Ceÿx, gryps, and mormyr, is long; that of Bebryx and sandyx is common.

#### INCREMENTS OF THE PLURAL NUMBER.

§ 288. 1. A noun in the plural number is said to increase, when, in any case, it has more syllables than in the ablative singular.

REMARK. When the ablative singular is wanting, or its place is supplied by a form derived from a different root, an ablative may, for this purpose, be assumed, by annexing the proper termination to the root of the plural.

 When a noun increases in the plural number, its penult is called the plural increment; as, sa in māsārum, no in dominorum, pi in rūpium and rāpibus.

### § 289, 290. PROSODY.—QUANTITY—INCREMENT OF VERBS. 329

3. In plural increments,  $\alpha$ , e, and o, are long, i and u are short; as,

bonārum, animābus, rērum, rēbus, gēnērorum, ambobus; sermonībus, lācubus. Thus,

Appia, longārum, tērītur, rēgīna viārum. Stat. S. 2, 2, 12. Sunt lacrymæ rērum, et mentem mortālia tangunt. Virg. A. 1, 462. Atque ālii, quārum cōmedia prisca virārum est. Hor. S. 1, 4, 2. Portābus ēgrēdilor, ventisque fērentībus ūsus. Ovid.

#### IV. INCREMENT OF VERBS.

- § 289. 1. A verb is said to increase, when, in any of its parts, it has more syllables than in the second person singular of the present indicative active; as, das, dă-tis; dŏces, dŏ-cē-mus.
- 2. The number of increments in any part of a verb is equal to that of its additional syllables. In verbs, as in nouns, the last syllable is never considered the increment. If a verb has but one increment, it is the penult; and this first increment, through all the variations of the verb, except in reduplicated tenses, continues equally distant from the first syllable. The remaining increments are numbered successively from the first; as,

ă-mas,	mŏ-nes,	au-dis,
1	1	1
ă-mā-mus,	mŏ-nē-tur,	au-dī-tis,
1 2	1 2	1 2
ăm-ā-bā-mus,	mŏn-ē-rē-tur,	au-di-ē-bas,
1 2 3	1 2 3	1284
ăm-ā-vĕ-rā-mus.	mŏn-ē-bīm-ī-ni.	au-di-ē-bām-I-ni.

- 3. A verb in the active voice may have three increments; in the passive, it may have four.
- 4. In determining the increments of deponent verbs, an active voice, formed from the same root, may be supposed.

Thus the increments of ke- $t\bar{a}$ -tur, ket- $\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{u}$ -tur, etc., are reckoned from the supposed verb leto, letos.

§ **290.** In the increments of verbs, a, e, and o, are long; i and u are short; as,

ămāre, monēre, fācitote, volumus, regebāmini. Thus,

Et cantare păres, et respondire părati. Ving. E. 7, 5. Sie Equidem discleam ânton, rebarque făurum. Id. A. 6, 690. Cumque lòqui pöterit, matrem făctuire salatet. Ovid, M. 9, 378. Scindiur incertum stădia în contraria vulgus. Ving. A. 2, 39. Nos numerus sămus, et friges consămere nati. Hor. Ep. 1, 2, 27.

### (a.) Exceptions in Increments in A.

The first increment of do is short; as, dămus, dăbāmus, dăret, dătūrus, circumdăre, circumdăbāmus.

### (b.) Exceptions in Increments in E.

 E before r is short in the first increment of all the present and imperfect tenses of the third conjugation, and in the second increment in bĕris and bĕre; as

rěgěre (infin. and imperat.), rěgěris or rěgěre (pres. ind. pass.), rěgěrem and rěgěrer (imp. subj.); àmāběris, àmāběre; mónēběris, mônēběre.

Note 1. In vėlim, vėlis, etc., from vėlo, (second person, regularly vėlis, by syncope and contraction vėsi,  $\delta$  is not an increment, but represents the root vowel  $\delta$ , and is therefore short;  $\S$  254, and  $\S$  178, 1.

2. E is short before ram, rim, ro, and the persons formed from them; as,

ămāvēram, ămāvērat, ămāvērim, monuērimus, rexēro, audivēritis.

Note 2. In verbs which have been shortened by syncope or otherwise, e before r retains its original quantity; as,  $fl\bar{e}ram$ , for  $fl\bar{e}v\bar{e}ram$ .

For the short e before runt, in the perfect indicative, as,  $st \tilde{e}t \tilde{e}runt$ , see Systole, § 307.

### (c.) Exceptions in Increments in I.

1. I before v or s, in tenses formed from the second root, is long; as,

pětiví, audiví, quasivit, divisit, audivímus, divisimus, audivéram.

 I is long, after the analogy of the fourth conjugation, in the final syllable of the third root of gaudeo, arcesso, divido, făcesso, lăcesso, pêto, quero, récenseo and obliviscor; as,

gāvīsus, arcessītus, dīvīsus, fúcessītus, lācessītus, pētītus, quæsītus, rēcensītus, oblītus; gāvīsūrus, etc.

3. I in the first increment of the fourth conjugation, except in *žmus* of the perfect indicative, is long; as,

audīre, audīten, audītus, audītūrus, pres. vēnīmus, but in the perfect vēnīmus. So in the ancient forms in ibam, ibo, of the fourth conjugation; as, mutribat, lenibunt; and also in ibam and ibo, from eo.

Note 3. When a vowel follows, the i is short, by § 283; as, audiunt, audie-bam.

4. I is long in the first and second persons plural of subjunctives in sim, sis, sit, etc., (§ 162, 1); as, sinus, silis, velimus, velitis, and their compounds; as, possimus, adsimus, natimus, natimus, velimus. So also in natio, natice, natiote, after the analogy of the fourth conjugation.

5. I in ris, rimus and ritis, in the future perfect and perfect subjunctive, is common; as,

rūdėris, Mart., occidėris, Hor.; vidėritis (Ovid), dėdėritis (Id.); fecerīmus (Catull.), egėrīmus (Virg.)

### (d.) Exceptions in Increments in U.

U is long in the increment of supines, and of participles formed from the third root of the verb; as,

sēcūtus, sŏlūtus, sēcūtūrus, sŏlūtūrus.

# RULES FOR THE QUANTITY OF PENULTIMATE AND ANTEPENULTIMATE SYLLABLES.

#### I. PENULTS.

§ 291. 1. Words ending in acus, icus, and icum, shorten the penult; as,

ămārācus, Ægyptiācus, rusticus, trītīcum, viātīcum.

Except Dācus, mērācus, opācus; āmīcus, aprīcus, ficus, mendicus, pīcus, posticus, pudīcus, spicus, unbilicus, vīcus.

2. Words ending in abrum, ubrum, acrum, and alrum, lengthen the penult; as,

candēlābrum, dēlūbrum, lāvācrum, vērātrum.

3. Nouns in ca lengthen the penult; as,

ăpăthēca, cloāca, lactūca, lorīca, phôca.

Except àlica, brassica, dica, fulica, mantica, pèdica, pertica, scuttea, phàlàrica, tànica, còmica; and also some nouns in ica derived from adjectives in icus; as, fubrica, grammatica, etc. So mànica.

 Patronymics in ades and ides shorten the penult; as, Atlantiădes, Priămădes.

Except those in ides which are formed from nouns in eus or és (nc); as, Atrides, from Atrèus; Neoclides, from Neoclès; except, also, Amphiaraïdes, Béldides, Ampthides, Ljeurgides.

5. Patronymics and similar words in ais, eis, and ois, lengthen the penult; as,

Achāis, Chrījsčis, Mīnōis. Except Phōcāis and Thēbǎis. The penult of Nē-reis is common.

6. Words in do lengthen the penult; as,

rādo, cēdo, dulcēdo, formādo, rōdo, testādo. Except cado, dīvido, ědo (to eat), comēdo, Macēdo, modo, solido, spádo, trēpido. Rudo is common.

Words in idus shorten the penult; those in udus lengthen it;

callidus, herbidus, limpidus, līvidus, perf idus; crūdus, lūdus, nūdus, sūdus, ūdus. Except ldus, fidus, infidus, nīdus, sīdus.

8. Nouns in ga and go lengthen the penult; as,

sāga, collīga, aurīga, rāga; māgo, cāligo, erūgo. Except cālīga, ossifrāga, tāga, plāga, (a region, or a net), fāga and its compounds, stēga, eclāga, ēgo, harpāgo, līgo.

9. Words in le, les, and lis, lengthen the penult; as,

crinale, mantele, ancile; ales, miles, protes; annalis, criadelis, civilis, civilis.— Except male;—verbals in ilis and bilis; as, agilis, amabilis;—adjectives in atlis; as, umbratilis;;—and also, indoles, soboles; periscells, dapsilis, gracilis, hamilis, partilis, similis, steridis, magilis, strig'ils.

10. Words in elus, ela, elum, lengthen the penult; as,

phāsēlus, quērēla, prēlum. Except gēlus, gēlum, scēlus.

11. Diminutives in olus, ola, olum, ulus, ula, ulum, also words in

ilus, and those in ulus, ula, and ulum, of more than two syllables, shorten the penult; as,

urceölus, filiola, lectūlus, rātiuncūla, corcūlum, pābūlum; rūtīlus, garrūlus, fābūla. Except āsīlus.

12. Words in ma lengthen the penult; as,

fāma, poēma, rīma, plūma. Except anīma, coma, dēcuma, lacrima, victima,

13. A vowel before final men or mentum is long; as,

lèvamen, gramen, crimen, flumen, jumentum, atramentum. Except tamen, colimen, Hymen, lèlementum, and a few verbal nouns derived from verbs of the second and third conjugations; as, all mentum, documen or documentum, émolumentum, monumentum, régimen, spécimen, tégimen, etc.

14. Words ending in imus shorten the penult; as,

ănimus, decimus, finitimus, fortissimus, maximus. Except bimus, limus, mimus, opimus, quadrimus, simus, trimus, and two superlatives, imus and primus.

Note. When an adjective ends in umus for imus, the quantity remains the same; as, dēcūmus, optūmus, maxūmus, for dēcīmus, etc.

15. A, e, o, and u, before final mus and mum, are long; as,

rāmus, rēmus, extrēmus, prōmus, dūmus, pōmum, rōlēmum. Except ātōmus, balsāmum, cinnāmum, dōmus, glōmus, hūmus, postāmus, thālāmus, tōmus, cālāmus, nēmus.

16. (a.) Words in na, ne, ni, and nis, lengthen the penult; as,

lâna, ârêna, cărina, mâtrôna, tâna, mâne, septêni, octôni, înânis, finis, immânis. Except adeêna, cottâna, ptisina, mina, yêna bêne, sine, cânis, cinis, jûcênis: and the following in îna,—buccina, dômina, fiscina, fêmina, fuscina, lâmina, mâchina, pâgina, pâtina, surcina, tibicina, trătina: and in plur. âpinae, mânæ, nundine. So compounds of gêno; as, indigênae.

(b.) Verbs in ino and inor shorten the penult; as,

destino, fascino, inquino, sino, criminor. Except festino, propino, săgino, opinor, and the compounds of clino; as, inclino, etc.

17. (a.) Adjectives in *inus*, when they express time, or indicate a material or an inanimate substance, shorten the penult; as,

crastīnus, diūtīnus, pristīnus, pērendīnus: fāginus, crocīnus, hyōcinthīnus, ādāmantīnus, crystallīnus, oleāginus, bombýcīnus. Except mātūtīnus, rēpentīnus, vespertīnus.

(b.) Other adjectives and words in inus and in inum tengthen the penult; as,

canīnus, binus, pēregrīnus, mārinus, clandestinus, sūpinus: līnum. Except acceptus, coetnus, cominus, funinus, dominus, fucinus, fâticinus, protinus, sinus, terminus, gominus, circinus, minus, valicinus, succinum, fascinum.

18. A, e, o, and u, before final nus and num, are long; as,

urbīnus, sērēnus, patronus, pronus, mūnus, tribūnus, fānum, vēnēnum, donum. Except ānus, an old woman, gabānus, mānus, oceānus, plātānus, ēbēnus, gēnus, līnigēnus, pēnus, tēnus, Vēnus, onus, bonus, sonus, thronus; làgānum, peucēdānum, popatum, tympānum, abrotonum.

19. Words ending in ba, bo, pa, and po, shorten the penult; as,

fūba, jūba, syližia; bibo, cūbo, probo; ālūpa, lūpa, scāpha; crēpo, participo. Freety ylēba, scriba, būbo, ylūbo, libo, nābo, scribo, sipho, cēpa, cūpa, pūpa, pūpa, rīpa, scūpa, stūpa; cūpo, rīpo, stīpo. 20. Words in al, ar, are, and aris, lengthen the penult; as,

tribānal, vectīgal: lūpānar, pulvīnar; altāre, lūqueāre; nārīs. Except ānīmal, cāpital, cūbital, tōrāl, jūbar, sālar, māre, bimāris, hilārīs, canthāris, cappārīs, Itārīs.

21. Before final ro or ror, a and e are short; i, o, and u, are long; as,

āro, pāro, fēro, gēro, sēro, cēlēro, tempēro, quēror; mīror, spīro, tīro; auctōro, ignāro, ōro; cāro, dāro, figāro; lāror. Except declāro, pēro, spēro; fūro, moro, sīror, sīror, sīror, sīror, sītror, sātlāro; and derivatives from genitives increasing short; as, augāror, dēcoro, mēmōro, murmāro, etc.; from augur, augāris; dēcus, dēcoris, etc.

22. Before final rus, ra, rum, e is short; the other vowels are long; as,

mērum, mērus, hēdēra, sērum, cētērum; cārus, mīrus, mūrus, mūrus, gyrus; āra, spīra, ōra, nātūra, lōrum.

Except, 1. austērus, gālērus, plērus, procērus, sincērus, sērus, sēvērus, vērus,

crātēra, cēra, pēra, panthēra, statēra.

- Exc. 2. barbārus, cammārus, cāmūrus, canthārus, chōrus, fōrus, hellēbōrus, nārus, opipārus, oripārus, phosphōrus, pirus, sātīgrus, scārus, spārus, tartārus, tōrus, zēpārus; auphōra, ancōra, cithāra, hāra, līgra, mōra, purpāra, philīgra, pīgra, sātīra; fōrum, gārum, pārum, suppārum.
  - Adjectives in osus lengthen the penult; as, fūmōsus, vīnōsus.
  - 24. Nouns in etas and itas shorten the penult; as, piètas, civitas, bônitas.
- 25. Adverbs in tim lengthen the penult, those in iter and itus shorten it: as.

stātim, (constantly), vīrītim, tribūtim; acriter, funditus. Except stātim, (immediately), affātim.

26. (a.) Words in ates, itis, otis, and in ata, eta, ota, uta, lengthen the penult, as,

rātes, pēnātes, rītis, mītis, cāryōtis, Icāriōtis, pīrāta, mēta, poēta, ālūta, cicūta. Except sitis, pōtis, drāpēta, nota, rota.

- (b.) Nouns in ita shorten the penult; as, ămīta, nārīta, orbīta, sēmita. Except pītuīta.
- 27. Nouns in atum, itum, utum, lengthen the penult; as,

lăpătum, ácônītum, vērūtum. Except defrătum, pulpitum, petoritum, lătum (mud), compitum.

28. Nouns and adjectives ending in tus lengthen the penult; as,

burbâtus, grâtus, bôlius, fücêtus, crinitus, pêritus, eurous, tötus, argūtus, kirsitus. Except câus, ditus, le-iris, impêtus, mêtus, rêpêtus, rêtus; âmêlius, digitus, gratuitus, hâlius, hospitus, servitus, spiritus; antiditus, nôtus, quotus, tôtus (so great); arbātus, pūtus; imelytus; and derivatives from perfect participles having a short penult; us, exercitus, hâbitus.

29. A penultimate vowel before v is long; as,

clava, oliva, dives, navis, ciris, pápárer, paro, priva, ovum, právus, æstivus, flytítvus. Except ávis, brévis, grávis, lévis, óvis; cávo, grávo, juvo, lávo, lévo, ovo; ávus, cávus, jávus, novus, jávor, paror, novem.

30. Words ending in dex, dix, mex, nix, lex, rex, lengthen the penult; as,

cōdex, jūdex; lōdix, rādix; cimex, pūmex; jūnix; Mex; cārex, mūrex. Except culex, silex, rūmex.

#### II. ANTEPENULTS.

§ 292. 1. I is short in diminutives in iculus and icellus (a, um), whether nouns or adjectives; as,

collicălus, dulcicălus, crăticăla, pellicăla, mollicellus. Except words in which the preceding vowel is short; as, căticăla, cănicăla: or in which i is long in the primitive; as, cornicăla, from corniz, -i-cis.

- 2. Numerals in ginti, ginta, ēni, and esimus, lengthen the antepenult; as,
  - viginti, quādrāginta, tricēni, quinquāgēsimus.
  - 3. O and u before final lentus are short; as, vinolentus, fraudūlentus, pulvērūlentus, trūcūlentus.
  - 4. A vowel before final nea, neo, nia, nio, nius, nium, is long; as,

ărânea, linea, căneo, mūnia, pūnio, Fărvinius, patrimônium. Except castânea, tinea, mâneo, mineo, môneo, sêneo, têneo, inôminia, luscinia, vênia, lânio, vênio, ingênium, gênius, sênio, sêniun, 'words în chium, as, lenôcinium; and derivatives in onius, when o in the root of the primitive is short; as, Agâmemnônius, from Agâmemnon, Jonis.

5. Words ending in areo, arius, arium, erium, orius, orium, lengthen the antepenult; as,

āreo, cibārius, plantārium, dictērium, censorius, tentorium. Except căreo, vărius, desidērium, impērium, māgistērium, ministērium.

- 6. Adjectives in atīcus, atīlis, lengthen the antepenult; as, āquātīcus, plumātīlis. Except some Greek words in ātīcus; as, grammātīcus
- I before final tūdo is short; as, altītādo, longitūdo.
- 8. Verbals in bilis lengthen a but shorten i in the antepenult; as, āmābilis, mirābilis; crēdibilis, terribilis. In hābilis, b belongs to the root.
- 9. U before v is short, (except in Jūverna); as, jūvenis, jūvenālis, jūvenālis, fūvena dilūvium.

#### III. PENULT OF PROPER NAMES.

§ 293. 1. Patrials and proper names of more than two syllables, found in the poets with the following terminations, shorten the penult:—

ba, ca, <sup>1</sup> la, <sup>2</sup> be,	de, le, <sup>4</sup> pe, <sup>5</sup> re,	o,6 on,7 os,8 er,9	ges, les, lis, <sup>10</sup> bus,	dus,18 eus,14 gus,15 lus,16	ena, 19 anes, enes, aris,	arus, erus, <sup>21</sup> yrus, asus,	atus, <sup>22</sup> itus, <sup>23</sup> otus. <sup>24</sup>
ce,3	al, il,	mas,	cus,11 chus,12	mus,17 phus,18	yris, asis, <sup>20</sup>	osus, usus,	

#### Exceptions.

¹Mārica, Nāsīca.—²Erīphýla, Messāla, Philomēla, Suādēla.—³Bērēnīce.—⁴Ērīphýle, Nebūlle, Pērīmēle.—⁵Ēurōpe, Snūpe.—°Carthāgo, Cūpāvo, Cūpīdo, Orīgo, Thēano.—¹Ālēmon, Anthēdon, Chalcēdon, Išson, Philēmon, Philopen, Pidypemon, Sarpēdon, Thermōdon.—°Cercýros, Pēpārēthos, Pharsālos, Sérīphos.—9Meleāger.—¹o¹Bessālis, Eumēlis, Jūvenālis, Martiālis, Phāselis, Stymphālis.—¹¹Bēnācus, Caīcus, Grānicus, Nāmīcus, Trivicus.—¹²Ophiūchus.—¹²Abydus.—¹²Cāphāreus, Enīpeus, Prōmētheus, Phōroneus, Salmoneus, Olieus.—¹²Cēthēgus.—¹²Names in -clus, in -olus (except Æölus, Naubōlus), in -bulus, Cacētālus, İūlus, Massējus, Orbēlus, Pharsālus, Sardānāpālus, Stymphālius.—¹²Same in -dēmus and -phēmus: as, Acādēmus, Polyphēmus.—¹8Serīphus.—¹²Alcīnēna, Athēnæ, Cāmēna, Fīdēna, Messēna, Mūrēna, Mycene.—²²Amāsis.—²²Hōmērus, bērus.—²²Arātus, Cærātus, Torquātus.—²²Hērācītus, Hermāphrōdītus.—²²Būthrōdīus, 
2. Proper names of more than two syllables, found in the poets with the following terminations, lengthen the penult:—

ana,	sa,	num,	tas,	nus,12	urus,	erus,10
ina,2	ta,4	tum,	des,9	pus,18	esus,15	ntus,
ona,8	tae,5	or,8	tes,10	irus,	isus,	ytus,17
yna,	ene,6	nas,	tis, <sup>11</sup>	orus,14	ysus,	vus.

### Exceptions.

¹Sēquāna.—²Mūtina, Prŏserpina, Ruspina, Sarsina.—²Axŏna, Matrŏna.—¹Dalmāta, Prŏchġta, Sarmūta, Lāpitha.—⁵Gālātæ, Jaxāmētæ, Massāgētæ, Mācētæ, Sauromāta.—6'Ojmēne, Helēne, Melpūmēne, Nyctimēne.—¹Arimīnum, Drēpānum.—Nūmitor.—Militiādes, Pylādes, Sōtādes, Thācġādes; patronymics in -des, (§ 291, 4), and plarads in -ades.—¹'Antiphātes, Chārites, Eurpātes, Ichnōbātes, Euergētes, Massāgētes, and all names in -crates.—¹Dercētis.—¹'Apidānus, Apōnus, Cārānus, Crānus, Brādānus, Pādamānus, Comenans, Darādanus, Pādamānen, Eizārīnus, Eridānus, Fācinus, Hēlēnus, Libānus, Mörlni, Mycōnus, Nebrophōnus, Olēnus, Periclynienus, Rībādanus, Santōnus, Sēquāni, Štephānus, Tālēgōnus, Terminus, and names in gonus and xenus.—¹²(Lātpus.—¹⁴Pācorus, Bospōrus, and names in -chorus and -phorus; as, Stēstehōrus, Phosphōrus.—¹¹Ephēsus, Vogēsus, Viēsus.—¹¹ēlāpētus, Tāygētus, Vēnētus.—¹²Dyšus, Anytus, Eurytus, Hippūlytus.

The penultimate vowel of the following proper names, and adjectives derived from proper names, though followed by a vowel, is long. See § 283, I. Exc. 6.

Enēas, Ethion, Achidous, Achilleus, Aleyôneus, Alexandria, Alōeus, Al-phēus, Amineus, Amphibirātus, Amphigadus, Amphion, Amythâon, Arion, Anchisēus, Atlanteus, Antiochia, Biōneus, Cæsàrea, Calaurea, Calliôpea, Cassiópea, Cleanthéas, Cydôneus, Cymodocea, Cytherea, Darius (ceus), Deidamio, Didymāon, Diômēdeus, Doilchāon, Echion, Eleus, Endymioneus, Enyō, Eōus, Erdebeus, Erectheus, Galatea, Giganteus, Herāclea (cus), Hippōdamia, Hyperion, Ilithyia, Imāon, Iolāus, Iphigenia, Ision, Lāodamia, Latous, Lesbous, Lycaon, Machāon, Munsōlēum, Mēdēa, Mencīaus, Methion, Myrtous, Ophon, Orion, Orithyia, Orpheus, Pallanteum (cus), Pandion, Paphagēa, Pēnētus, Pentiesilēau, Phoebens, Poppea, Protesilāus, Pyrenēus, Sardeus, Thalia.

Norz. Eus in the termination of Greek proper names, is commonly a diphenor; as, Alcess, Cieneus, Orplenes, Peleus, Perseus, Prôteus, Thřesus, Tydeus, which are dissyllables; Bridireus, Eniphens, Macareus, Typhōeus, which are trisyllables, Idômêneus, etc. Cf. § 283, Exc. 6, Note 2. But in those which in Greek are written usc (cios), eus forms two syllables; as, Alphēns. So also in adjectives in ens, whether of Greek or Latin origin; as, Erèbeus, Ereccheus, Orpheus; auréus, Uppens, auréus, Uppens, auréus, Uppens, auréus, Uppens, auréus, Uppens, auréus, Uppens, auréus, Uppens, auréus, Uppens, auréus, Uppens, auréus, Uppens, auréus, uppens, auréus, uppens, auréus, uppens, auréus, uppens, auréus, auréus, uppens, aux en la faction de la company de la com

### QUANTITY OF FINAL SYLLABLES.

#### I. VOWELS.

#### MONOSYLLABLES.

§ 294. (a.) All monosyllables, except enclitics, ending in a vowel, are long; as,

ã, áh, dã, siā, ễ, dễ, mế, tế, sẽ, nế, rẽ, ĩ, fĩ, hĩ, quĩ, nĩ, sĩ, O or ỏh, đỏ, prỗ, prỗh, quố, siỗ, tử.

#### POLYSYLLABLES.

### A final.

1. A final, in words declined, is short; as,  $m\bar{u}s\ddot{a}$ ,  $templ\ddot{a}$ ,  $c\check{a}p\check{t}-t\check{a}$ ,  $T\bar{y}de\check{a}$ . Thus,

Mūsā mīhi causas mēmorā; quo nūmīne læso .... Virg. A. 1, 8.

Exc. A final is long in the ablative of the first declension, and in the vocative of Greek nouns in as and es; as,

Mūsā, fundā; O Ænēā, O Pallā, O Anchisā.

2. A final, in words not declined, is long; as, ămā, frustrā, anteā, erqā, intrā. Thus,

Extrā fortūnam est quidquid dönātur amīcis. Mart. Epig. 5, 42, 7.

Exc. A final is short in eiā, tit, quiā, and in pātā, when used adverbially, in the sense of 'for example.' It is sometimes short in the preposition contra, and in numerals ending in ginta; as, trighta, etc. In postea, it is common. A final is also short in the names of Greek letters; as, alphā, bētā, etc., and in tārittantārā, the imitated sound of the trumper.

### E final.

§ 295. E final, in words of two or more syllables, is short; as, nātě, patrě, ipsě, currě, rěgěrě, nempě, antě. Thus,

Incipe, parve puer, rīsu cognoscere matrem. Virg. E. 4, 60.

REMARK. The enclitics -que, -ne, -re, -ce, -te, -pte, etc., as they are not used alone, have e short, according to the rule; as, neque, higusce, suapte. Cf. 6 294. (a.)

Exc. 1. E final is long in nouns of the first and fifth declensions; as.

Calliopē, Týdulē, filē. So also in the compounds of rē and diē; as, quārē, hôdiē, pridiē, postrīdiē, quōtidiē, and in the ablative fāmē, originally of the fifth declension.

Exc. 2. E final is long in Greek vocatives from nouns in -cs, of the third dension; as, Achille, Hippômêwê; and in Greek neuters plural; as, cêtê, mêtê, pêligê, Tempê.

Exc. 3. In the second conjugation, e final is long in the second person singular of the imperative active; as,  $d\ddot{o}c\ddot{e}$ ,  $m\ddot{o}n\ddot{e}$ ;—but it is sometimes short in  $c\ddot{c}ve$ ,  $v\ddot{a}le$ , and  $v\dot{u}de$ .

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Exc. 4. E final is long in adverbs formed from adjectives of the second declension; as,

plăcidē, pulchrē, valdē for vălidē, maxīmē; but it is short in běně, mălě, inferně, and superně.

Exc. 5. Fěrē, fermē, and ŏhē, have the final e long.

### I final.

§ **296.** I final is long; as,  $d\breve{o}m\breve{i}n\ddot{i}$ ,  $f\bar{\imath}l\ddot{i}$ ,  $class\ddot{\imath}$ ,  $d\breve{o}c\bar{e}r\ddot{\imath}$ ,  $s\ddot{\imath}$ . Thus,

Quid domini făcient, audent cum tălia füres. Virg. E. 3, 16.

Exc. 1. (a.) I final is common in mihi, tibi, sibi, ibi, and ubi.

(b.) In ūbique and commonly in ibidem it is long, but in ūbiris and ūbinam it is not.—(c.) In nist, quūsi, and cui, when a dissyllable, i final is common, but usually short. In ūtinam and ūtique, and rarely, also, in ūti, it is short.

Exc. 2. I final is short in the dative singular of Greek nouns of the third declension, which increase in the genitive; as, Palladi, Minoidi, Tēthyīt.

Exc. 3. I final is short in the vocative of Greek nouns in -is; as, Alexi, Daphni, Pāri. But it is long in vocatives from Greek nouns in -is, (u:) -entos; as, Sīmōī, Pēprōi.

Exc. 4. I final is short in Greek datives and ablatives plural in -si, or, before a vowel, -sin: as, Dryāsī, hērōīsī, Trōāsīn.

### O final.

§ 297. O final, in words of two or more syllables, is common; as, virgŏ, ămŏ, quandŏ. Thus,

Ergő mětu cápita Scylla est inimica páterno. Virg. Cir. 386. Ergő sollicitæ tu causa, pěcūnia, vitæ es! Prop. 3, 5, 1.

Exc. 1. O final is long in the dative and ablative singular; as, dŏmīnō, regnō, bonō, suō, illō, eō.

Exc. 2. O final is long in ablatives used as adverbs; as,  $cert\delta$ ,  $fals\delta$ ,  $m\acute{e}rit\delta$ ,  $rulg\delta$ ,  $e\delta$ ,  $qu\delta$ ; and also in  $omnin\delta$ , in  $erg\delta$ , for the sake of, and in the interjection  $i\delta$ .

Remark 1. The final o of verbs is almost always long in poets of the Augustan age.

REM. 2. In poets subsequent to the Angustan age, final o in verbs, in gerunds, and in the adverbs adeo, ideo, ergo, sero, vero, porro, retro, immo, ideiro, sebito, and postremo, is sometimes short.

Exc. 3. O final is short in cito, illico, prôfecto, and the compounds of môdo; a dummôdó, postmôdó, etc.; and in égo and hômo it is more frequently short than long.

Exc. 4. O final in Greek nouns written with an oměga ( $\alpha$ ) is long; as,  $Cl\bar{n}\bar{o}$ ,  $D\bar{u}l\bar{o}$ ,  $Ath\bar{o}$ , and  $Andr\bar{o}ge\bar{o}$ , (gcn.)

### U final.

 $\S$  **298.** 1. U final is long; as,  $vult\bar{u}$ ,  $corn\bar{u}$ ,  $Panth\bar{u}$ ,  $d\bar{i}ct\bar{u}$ ,  $d\bar{i}\bar{u}$ . Thus,

Vultū, quo cœlum tempestătesque sĕrēnat. Virg. A. 1, 255.

Exc. Indu and nenu, ancient forms of in and non, have u short. U is also short in terminations in u short, when u is removed by elision; as, contentu, for contentus. See § 305, 2.

### Y final.

 Y final is short; as, Moly, Tiphy. Thus, Moly vocant superi: nigra radice tenetur. Ovid. M. 14, 292.

Exc. Y in the dative Tēthy, being formed by contraction, is long. § 283, III.

#### 1 I. CONSONANTS.

### MONOSYLLABLES.

§ 299. 1. Monosyllables substantives ending in a consonant are long; all other monosyllables ending in a consonant are short; as,

sôl, vir, fūr, jūs, splēn, vēr, fūr, lār, Nār, pār, Sēr, fūr, fās, mās, rēs, pēs, Dīs, giš, līs, vis, fīòs, mòs, ròs, Tròs, òs, (ôris), dôs, grūs, rūs, tūs;—nēc, in, an, ab, âd, gulā, giā, gulā, glī, tī as,

Ipse döcet qu'id ăgam. Fās est čt üb hoste döcēri. Ovid. M. 4, 428. Vēr ādeo frondi němörum, vēr ūtīle silvis. Virg. G. 2, 323.

Note. The rules for the quantity of final syllables ending in a consonant imply that the consonant is single, and that it is preceded by a single vowel. If otherwise the syllable will be long by § 283, IV. and II.

Exc. 1. Cör, fēl, mēl, pŏl, vir, ŏs (gen. ossis), and probably vas (vădis), are short.

Exc. 2. En,  $n\bar{o}n$ ,  $qu\bar{i}n$ ,  $s\bar{i}n$ ,  $cr\bar{a}s$ ,  $pl\bar{a}s$ ,  $c\bar{u}r$ , and  $p\bar{a}r$ , are long: so also are particles and pronouns ending in c, except  $n\bar{e}c$ , which is short, and the pronouns  $h\bar{c}e$  and hoe, in the nominative and accusative, which are common.

Exc. 3. Monosyllabic plural cases of pronouns and forms of verbs in as, es, and is, are long; as, hās, quās, hōs, nōs, rōs, qūōs, his, quīs;—dās, flēs, stēs, is, fīs, sie, vīs; except ēs from sum which is slort.

Exc. 4. The abridged imperatives retain the quantity of their root; as, dic,  $d\bar{u}c$ , from dico,  $d\bar{u}co$ ;  $f\bar{u}c$ ,  $f\bar{v}r$ , from  $f\bar{u}cio$ ,  $f\bar{v}ro$ .

#### POLYSYLLABLES.

## D, L, N, R, T, final.

Final syllables ending in d, l, n, r, and t, are short; as, illūd, consūl, carmēn, pātēr, cāpūt. Thus,

Obstăpuit simül ipse, simul perculsus Achātes. Virg. A. 1, 513. Nömēn Ariönium Sicülas implētērāt urbes. Ovid. F. 2, 93. Dum löynör, horrör, habet; parsque est méminisse dölöris. Id. M. 9, 291.

Exc. 1. E in  $li\bar{e}n$  is long.

Exc. 2. In Greek nouns, nominatives in n (except those in on, written with an omicron), masculine or feminine accusatives in an or en, and genitives plural in on, lengthen the final syllable; as,

Titan, Orion, Encan, Anchisen, Calliopen; epigrammaton.

Exc. 3. Aer, æther, and nouns in er which form their genitive in ēris, lengthen the final syllable; as,

crater, soter. So also Iber; but the compound Celtiber has sometimes in Martial its last syllable short.

Remark. A final syllable ending in t, may be rendered long by a diphthong,

by contraction, by syncopation, or by position; as, aut, abit for abit, fumat, for fumavit, amant. See § 283, II. III. IV., and § 162, 7, (d.)

### M final.

Note. Final m with the preceding vowel is almost always cut off, when the next word begins with a vowel. See Ecthlipsis, \$ 305, 2.

Final syllables ending in m, when it is not cut off, are short;

Quam laudas, plūmā? cocto num adest honor idem. Hor. S. 2, 2, 28.

REMARK. Hence in composition the final syllables of cum and circum are short; as, comedo, circumago.

### C final.

4. Final syllables ending in c are long; as, ālēc, illīc, istāc, illūc. Thus.

Illīc indocto prīmum se exērcuit arcu. Tib. 2, 1, 69.

Exc. The final syllable of donec is short; as,

Donec eris felix, multos numerabis amicos. Ovid. Trist. 1, 9, 5.

### AS, ES, and OS, final.

Final syllables in as, es, and os, are long; as,

mūsās, pietās, amās, Ænēās, quies, sermones, dies, Penelopes, ducenties, mones, honos, viros, dominos. Thus,

> Hās autem terrās, Itálīque hanc lītöris ōram. Virg. A. 3, 396. Si modo des illis cultus, similesque paratus. Ovid. M. 6, 454.

Exc. 1. (a.) AS. As is short in anas, in Greek nouns whose genitive ends in adis or ados; as, Arcas, Pallas; and in Greek accusatives plural of the third declension; as, hērōās, lampādās.

(b.) As is short also in Latin nouns in as, ados, formed like Greek patronymics; as, Appias.

Exc. 2. ES. (a.) Final es is short in nouns and adjectives of the third declension which increase short in the genitive; as, hospes, līmes, hebes; gen. hospītis, etc.

(b.) But it is long in abies, aries, paries, Ceres, and pes, with its compounds cornipes, sonipes, etc.

(e.) Es, in the present tense of sum and its compounds, and in the preposition pěněs, is short.

. (d.) Es is short in Greek neuters in es; as, căcoēthēs, and in Greek nominatives and vocatives plural from nouns of the third declension, which increase in the genitive; as, Arcades, Troes, Amazones; from Arcas, Arcadis, etc.

Exc. 3. OS. (a.) Os is short in compos, impos, and os (ossis), with its compound exos.

(b.) Os is short in Greek nouns and cases written in the original with omieron; as (1) in all neuters; as, chaōs, ἐρōs, Argōs; (2) in all noms of the second declension; as, Iliōs, Tgrōs, Delōs; except those whose genitive is in ō, (Greek ω); as, Alhōs, gen. Alhō; (3) in genitives singular of the third declension; as, Pallatōs, Tchyōs, from Pallas and Tchys.

## IS, US, and YS, final.

### § 301. Final syllables in is, us, and ys, are short; as,

turris, mīlitis, mītis, āmātis, āmābis, māgis; pectās, bonās, ējās, āmāmās, rursās, tēnās; Cāpys, Itýs. Thus,

Non ăpis inde tülit collectos sēdūla flöres. Ovid. M. 13, 928. Sērīās aut citius sēdem propērāmūs ad ūnam. Id. M. 10, 33. At Cāpys, et quōrum mělior sententia menti. Virg. A. 2, 35.

### Exc. 1. IS. (a.) Is is long in plural cases; as,

mūsis, nobis; omnis, urbis, (for omnēs, urbēs); quīs, (for quēis or quibus). So also in the adverbs grātis, ingrātis, and foris, which are in reality datives or ablatives plural.

Et līquīdi sīmūl ignis; ut hīs exordia prīmīs. Virg. A. 6, 33. Quīs ante ōra patrum Trōjæ sub meenībus altis. Izl. A. 1, 95. Non omnīs arbusta jūvant, hūmīlesque myrīcæ. Izl. E. 4. 2. Adde töt ēgrēgias urbīs, ŏpērumque labōrem. Izl. G. 2, 155.

- (b.) Is is long in the nominative of nouns whose genitive ends in itis, inis, or entis; as, Samais, Sālāmīs, Sīmoīs.
- (c.) Is is long in the second person singular of the present indicative active of the fourth conjugation; as,

audis, nescis. So also in the second persons, fis, is, sis, vis, vilis, and their compounds; as, adsis, possis, quamvis, malis, ndis, etc. Cf. § 299, 1, Exc. 3.

(d.) Ris, in the future perfect and perfect subjunctive, is common; as, videris.

Exc. 2. US. (a.) Us is long in nouns of the third declension which increase long, and in the genitive singular, and the nominative, accusative, and vocative plural of the fourth declension, (§ 89, Rem., and § 283, III.); as,

tellūs, virtūs, incūs;—fructūs. But pālūs, with the us short, occurs in Horace, Art. Poet. 65.

(b.) Us is long in Greek nouns written in the original with the diphthong ous (vic) whether in the nominative or genitive; as, non. Amidhūs, Opūs, Œdipūs, Eripūs, Panthūs; gen. Didūs, Sapphūs. But compounds of pus (πους), when of the second declension, have us short; as, poligūs.

NOTE. The last syllable of every verse, (except the anapæstic and the Ionic a minōre), may be either long or short at the option of the roet.

REMARK. By this is meant, that, although the measure require a long syllable, a short one may be used in its stead; and a long syllable may be used where a short one is required; as in the following verses, where the short syllable ma stands instead of a long one, and the long syllable cu instead of a short one:

Sanguineāque mānu crēpītantia concūtit armā. Ovid. M. 1, 143. Non ēget Mauri jacūlīs, nec arcū. Hor. Od. 1, 22, 2.

### VERSIFICATION.

#### FEET.

§ 302. A foot is a combination of two or more syllables of a certain quantity.

Feet are either simple or compound. Simple feet consist of two or three syllables; compound feet of four.

#### I. SIMPLE FEET.

### 1. Of two Syllables.

Constant to	o long, — -; as,	
Sporaee,	0 long, — —; as,	
Dlin	a showt . as	
F WITHUE,	o short, C C; as,	
Two hee on chouse a l	o short, $\smile$ ; as,	
Trochee, or choree, a i	ong and a short, — C, as,	
Lumbua	hort and a long as arant	
lambue	hort and a long : as ërant.	

### 2. Of three Syllables.

Dactyl,	a long and two short, — — ; as,cōrpŏrā.
Anapæst,	two short and a long,; as,domini.
Tribrach,	three short,; as,fācērē.
Molossus	three long, — — ; as,contendunt.
Amphibrach,	a short, a long, and a short,; as,amārē.
Amphimacrus, or	Cretic, a long, a short, and a long,; as, castitas.
	two long and a short, — — ; as, Rōmānus.

#### II. COMPOUND FEET.

Dispondee, a double spondee, ; as,	. conflixerunt.
Proceleusmatic, a double Pyrrhic,; as,	.hominibus.
Ditrochee, a double trochee, : as	.comprobavit.
Diiambus, a double iambus,; as,	.amaverant.
Greater Ionic,a spondee and a Pyrrhic,; as,	.correximus.
Smaller Ionic, a Pyrrhic and a spondee,; as,	. properabant.
Choriambus, a choree and an iambus, ; as,	.terrificant.
Antispast,	, ŭdhæsīss <b>ë.</b>
First epitrit, an iambus and a spondee, $\sim$ ; as,	.ămāvēr <b>ūnt.</b>
Second epitrit, a trochee and a spondee,; as,	, conditores.
Third epitrit a spondee and an iambus, ; as,	.dīscōrdĭā <b>s.</b>
Fourth epitrit, a spondee and a trochee,; as,	.āddūxīstis.
First paon a trochee and a Pyrrhic,; as,	.temporib <b>us.</b>
Second poon, an iambus and a Pyrrhic,; as,	. pŏtēntīă.
Third poon a l'yrrhic and a trochee,; as,	.animātūs.
Fourth peon, a Pyrrhic and an iambus, ; as,	.cēlērītās.

REMARK. Those feet are called *isochronous*, which consist of equal times; as the spondee, the dactyl, the anapæst, and the proceleusmatic, one long time being considered equal to two short.

#### METRE.

- § 303. 1. Metre is an arrangement of syllables and feet according to certain rules.
- 2. In this general sense, it comprehends either an entire verse, a part of a verse, or any number of verses.
- Metre is divided into dactylic, anapæstic, iambic, trochaic, choriambic, and Ionic. These names are derived from the original or fundamental foot employed in each.
- 4. A metre or measure, in a specific sense, is either a single foot, or a combination of two feet. In the dactylic, choriambic, and Ionie metres, a measure consists of one foot; in the other metres, of two feet. Two feet constituting a measure are sometimes called a syzygy.

#### VERSES.

- § 304. A verse is a certain number of feet, arranged in a regular order, and constituting a line of poetry.
  - 1. Two verses are called a distich; a half verse, a hemistich.
- 2. Verses are of different kinds, denominated sometimes, like the different species of metre, from the foot which chiefly predominates in them; as, dactylic, iambic, etc.;—sometimes from the number of feet or metres which they contain; as, sēnārius, consisting of six feet; octŏnārius, of eight feet; monŏmēter, consisting of one measure; dīmēter, of two; trimēter, tetramēter, pentamēter, hexamēter;—sometimes from a celebrated author who used a particular species; as, Sapphic, Anacreontic, Alcaic, Asclepiudic, Glyconic, Phalæcian, Sotadic, Archilochian, Alcmanian, Pherecratic, Aristophanic, etc., from Sappho, Anacreon, Alcœus, Asclepiūdes, Glycon, Phalæcias, Sotādes, Archilochus, Aleman, Pherecrātes, Aristophānes, etc.—and sometimes from the particular uses to which they were applied; as, the prosodiac, from its use in solemn processions, the paræmiac, from its frequent use in proverbs.
- 3. A verse, with respect to the metres which it contains, may be complete, deficient, or redundant.
  - (1.) A verse which is complete is called acatalectic.
- (2.) A verse which is deficient, if it wants one syllable at the end, is called catalectic; if it wants a whole foot or half a metre, it is called brachycatalectic.
- (3.) A verse which wants a syllable at the beginning, is called acephalous.
- (4.) A verse which has a redundant syllable or foot, is called hypercatalectic or hypermeter.
- 4. Hence, the complete name of every verse consists of three terms—the first referring to the species, the second to the number of metres, and the third to the ending; as, the dactylic trimeter catalectic.

5. A verse or portion of a verse of any kind (measured from the beginning) which contains three half feet, or a foot and a half, is called a trihēmimēris; if it contains five half feet, or two feet and a half, it is called a penthēmimēris; if seven half feet, or three feet and a half, a hepthēmimēris; if nine half feet, or four feet and a half, an ennehēmimēris. A portion of a verse consisting of one whole metre and a half, is called a hēmiölius, as being the half of a trimeter.

Note. The respective situation of each foot in a verse is called its place.

6. SCANNING is the dividing of a verse into the feet of which it is composed.

REMARK. In order to scan correctly, it is necessary to know the quantity of each syllable, and also to understand the following poetic usages, which are sometimes called

#### FIGURES OF PROSODY.

#### SYNALEPHA.

§ **305.** 1. Synalæpha is the elision of a final vowel or diphthong in scanning, when the following word begins with a vowel.

Thus, terra antiqua is read terr' antiqua; Dardănida infensi, Dardănid infensi; vento huc, vent' huc. So,

Quidve moror? si omnes uno ordine habetis Achivos. Virg. A. 2, 102.

Which is scanned thus-

Quidve moror? s' omnes un' ordin' habetis Achivos.

(1.) The interjections O, heu, ah, proh, væ, vah, are not elided; as,

O et de Lătia, O et de gente Sábīnā. Ovid. M. 14, 832.

Remark. But O, though not elided, is sometimes made short; as, Te Cörjdon O Alexi; trahit sua quemque võluptas. Virg. E. 2, 65.

(2.) Other long vowels and diplithongs sometimes remain unelided, in which case, when in the thesis of a foot, they are commonly made short; as,

Victor ăpud răpīdum Simoënta săb Iliō alto. Virg. A. 5, 261. Anni tempôre eo qui Eitēsia esse foruntur. Lucr. 6, 717. Ter sunt cōnāti impōnēre Pēliō Ossam. Virg. G. 1, 281. Glaucō et Panōpta, et Inōo Mēlicertæ. Id. G. 1, 436.

(3.) Rarely a short vowel, also, remains without elision; as, Et vēra incessu pātnit deā. Ille ŭbi mātrem.... Virg. A. 1, 405.

(4.) Synalcepha in a monosyllable occasionally occurs; as, Si ad vitulam spectus, nihil est, quod pocula laudes. Virg. E. 3, 48.

For synalopha at the end of a line, see Synapheia, § 307, 3.

#### ECTHLIPSIS.

2. Ecthlipsis is the elision of a final m with the preceding vowel, when the following word begins with a vowel. Thus,

O cūras homīnum, O quantum est in rebus īnāne! Pers. 1, 1.

Which is thus scanned-

O cūras homin' O quant' est in rebus inane.

Monstrum horrendum, informe, ingens, cui lümen ädemptum. Virg. A. 3, 658.

\*(1.) This elision was sometimes omitted by the early poets; as, Corpŏrūm officium est quöniam prēmēre omnia deorsum. Lucr. 1, 363.

See § 299, 2.

(2) Final s, also, with the preceding vowel, is sometimes elided by the early poets before a vowel, and sometimes a slone before a consonant; as, content adjuct (Enn.), for contentus adjuc; omnibu' rebus. (Lucr.) So,

Tum lăterāli' dolor, certissimu' nunciu' mortis. Lucil.

REMARK. This elision took place principally in short syllables. For eathlipsis at the end of a line, see Symapheia, § 307, 3.

#### SYNERESIS.

§ 306. 1. Synæresis is the contraction into one syllable of two vowels which are usually pronounced separately. Thus,

Aurea percussum virgā, versumque vēnēnis. Virg. A. 7, 190. Eosdem habuit sēcum, quibus est ēlāta, capillos. Prop. 4, 7, 7. Tityre, pascentes a flūmine reice capellas. Virg. E. 3, 96.

REMARK 1. So Phasthon is pronounced Phathon; alveo, alvo; Orphea, Orpha; deorsum, dorsum.

(1.) Synæresis is frequent in ii, iidem, iisdem, dii, diis, dein, deinceps, deinde, deest, deërat, deëro, deërit, deesse; as,

Præcīpītātur aquis, et aquis nox surgit ab îsdem. Ovid. M. 4, 92. Sint Mæcēnātes; non deerunt, Flacce, Marones. Mart. 8, 56, 5.

Rem. 2. Cui and huic are usually monosyllables.

(2.) When two vowels in compound words are read as one syllable, the former may rather be considered as elided than as united with the latter; as, e in antenmbilo, antere, antehac, dehine, mehercide, etc., and a in contrater.

(3.) The syllable formed by the union of i or u followed by another vowel retains the quantity of the latter vowel, whether long or short; as, dbicle, drilles, divides, arisetillous, consilium, fortuitus, <math>Naidicleus, vindemiator, omnis g enua, t-finits, plitita, flaviorum, etc. In such examples, the i and u are pronounced like initial y and w: as, dbylet, paryettbus, consilyum, f-orientus, N-fastdynus, onn-yd, t-envis, pilwita, etc.; and, like consonants, they have, with another consonant, the power of lengthening a preceding short vowel, as in the above examples.

Note. In Statius, the word tënuiore occurs as a trisyllable, in which the three vowels, uio, are united in pronunciation; thus, tēn-wiō-re.

(4.) Sometimes, after a synalæpha or echthlipsis, two vowels suffer synæresis; as, stellio et, pronounced stell-yet: consilium et,—consil-yet.

(5.) If only one of the vowels is written, the contraction is called crasis; as, di, consili, for dii, consilii.

#### DIÆRESIS.

2. Diærĕsis is the division of one syllable into two; as,

aulāt, Tröta, sīlūa, sūddent; for aulæ, Troia or Troja, silva, suādent. So, sūesco for suesco; rēlīgūās for rēlīguus; ecgūis for ecguis; milūās for milvus, etc., as,

Æthereum sensum, atque aurāt simplīcis ignem. Virg. A. 6. 747. Atque alios alii irrident, Vēnēremque stādient. Lucr. 4, 1153. Grammatici certant; et ādhuc sub indice lis est. Hor. A. P. 78. Aurārum et stūz mētu. Id. O. 1, 23, 4.

(1.) So în Greek words originally written with a diphthong ("or n"); as, eligira for eligira, Baccheta for Bacchea, Rhateita for Rhateas, Pletas for Platas and also in words of Latin origin; as, Vetas for Vetus, Aquilità for Aquileta.

REMARK. This figure is sometimes called dialysis.

#### SYSTOLE.

§ 307. 1. Systöle is the shortening of a syllable which is long by nature or by position; as,

vidë n for videsne, in which e is naturally long; săti'n for sătisne, in which i is long by position;—hōdie for hōc die; multimodis for multis mōdis. So,

Dūcere multimodis voces, et flectere cantus. Lucr. 5, 1405.

(1.) By the omission of j after  $\bar{a}b$ ,  $\bar{a}d$ ,  $\bar{a}b$ ,  $s\bar{a}b$ , and  $r\bar{e}$ , in compound words, those prepositions retain their naturally short quantity, which would otherwise be made long by position; as,  $\bar{a}bic$ ,  $\bar{a}dc\bar{c}i$ ,  $\bar{a}bic\bar{a}s$ , etc. Thus,

Si quid nostra tuis ādīcit vexātio rēbus. Mart. 10, 82, 1.

REMARK. In some compounds the short quantity of dd and db is preserved before a consonant by the clision of the d or b of the preposition, as in dperio, d

(2.) The penult of the third person plural of certain perfects is said by some to be shortened by systole; as, sétérunt, talérunt, etc.; but others ascribe these irregularities to the errors of transcribers, or the carelessness of writers.

#### DIASTOLE.

- 2. Diastŏle is the lengthening of a syllable which is naturally short.
- It occurs most frequently in proper names and in compounds of re; as, Prādmides, rēligio, etc. Thus,

Hanc tibi Priămides mitto, Ledæa, sălutem. Ovid. H 16, 1. Religione patrum multos servata per annos. Virg. A. 2, 715.

- (2.) Some editors double the consonant after the lengthened re; as, relligio.
- (3.) Diastole is sometimes called ectăsis.

#### SYNAPHEIA.

- 3. Synapheia is such a connection of two consecutive verses, that the first syllable of the latter verse has an influence on the final syllable of that which precedes, either by position, synalopha, or ecthlipsis. See §§ 283 and 305.
- (1.) This figure is most frequent in anapæstic verse, and in the Ionic a minore.

The following lines will illustrate its effect:-

Præceps silvas montesque fugit Citus Actæon. Sen.

Here the i in the final syllable of fugit, which is naturally short, is made long by position before the following consonants, tc.

Omnia Mercŭrio sīmīlis, võcemque cölöremque Et crines flavos .... Virg. A. 4, 558. Dissidens piebi numero beatorum Eximit virtus. Hor. O. 2, 2, 18.

In the former of these examples, synapheia and synalorpha are combined, que being elided before et in the following line; in the latter there is a similar combination of synapheia and ecthlipsis.

(2.) By synapheia, the parts of a compound word are sometimes divided between two verses: as,

> .... si non offenderet unum-Quemque poëtarum limæ lábor et möra... Hor. A. P. 290.

(3.) In hexameter verse a redundant syllable at the end of a line elided before a vowel at the beginning of the next line, by causing the accent to fall on the second syllable of the concluding spondee, and connecting the two verses by synapheia, excites the expectation of something which is to follow, and often tends to magnify the object; as,

Quōs sŭpër- | -ātrā sī- | -lēx, jām- | -jām lāp- | -sūrā cā- | -dēntī- | -que Immĭnet assimīlis. Virg. A. 6, 602.

REMARK. The poets often make use of other figures, also, which, however, are not peculiar to them. Such are prosthesis, aphæresis, syncope, epenthesis, apocope, paragoge, tmesis, antithesis, and metathesis. See § 322.

#### ARSIS AND THESIS.

- § 308. (1.) Rhythm is the alternate elevating and depressing of the voice at regular intervals in pronouncing the syllables of verse.
- (2.) The elevation of the voice is called arsis, its depression thesis. These terms designate, also, the parts of a foot on which the elevation or depression falls.
- 1. The natural arsis is on the long syllable of a foot; and hence, in a foot composed wholly of long, or wholly of short syllables, when considered in itself, the place of the arsis is undetermined; but when such foot is substituted for the fundamental foot of a metre, its arsis is determined by that of the latter.

REMARK. Hence, a spondee, in trochaic or dactylic metre, has the arsis on the first syllable; but in iambic or anapæstic metre, it has it on the last.

2. The arsis is either equal in duration to the thesis, or twice as long.

Thus, in the dactyl, —  $\smile$  —, and anapæst — ——, it is equal; in the trochee, ——, and lambus, ——, it is twice as long. This difference in the proportionate duration of the arsis and thesis constitutes the difference of rhythm. A foot is said to have the descending rhythm, when its arsis is at the beginning, and the ascending, when the thesis is at the beginning.

- The stress of voice which falls upon the arsis of a foot, is called the ictus. When a long syllable in the arsis of a foot is resolved into two short ones, the ictus falls upon the former.
- Note 1. Some suppose that the terms arsis and thesis, as used by the ancients, denoted respectively the rising and falling of the hand in beating time. and that the place of the thesis was the syllable which received the ictus

Note 2. As the ancient pronunciation of Latin is not now understood, writers differ in regard to the mode of reading verse. According to some, the accent of each word should always be preserved; while others direct that the stress of voice should be laid on the arsis of the foot, and that no regard should be paid to the accent.

It is generally supposed that the final letters elided by synaloepha and ecthlipsis, though omitted in scanning, were pronounced in reading verse.

#### CÆSURA.

§ 309. Casura is the separation, by the ending of a word, of syllables rhythmically or metrically connected.

Casura is of three kinds:—1, of the foot; 2, of the rhythm; and 3, of the rerse.

1. Cæsura of the foot occurs when a word ends before a foot is completed; as,

Silves- | -trem tenu- | -i Mu- | -sam medi- | -taris a- | -vēna. Virg. E. 1, 2.

Cæsura of the rhythm is the separation of the arsis from the thesis by the ending of a word, as in the second, third, and fourth feet of the preceding verse.

REM 1. It hence appears that the cæsura of the rhythm is always a cæsura of the foot, as e. g. in the 2d, 3d, and 4th feet of the preceding verse; but, on the contrary, that the cæsura of the foot is not always a cæsura of the rhythm, as e. g. in the fifth foot of the same verse.

(1.) Casura of the rhythm allows a final syllable naturally short, to stand in the aris of the foot instead of a long one, it being lengthened by the ictus; as,

Pēctori- | -bus inhi- | -ans spi- | -rantia | consulit | exta. Virg. A. 4, 64.

This occurs chiefly in hexameter verse.

REM. 2. Cæsnra of the foot and of the verse do not of themselves lengthen a short syllable, but they often coincide with that of the rhythm.

 Cassura of the verse is such a division of a line into two parts, as affords to the voice a convenient pause or rest, without injury to the sense or harmony.

REM. 3. The cæsura of the verse is often called the cæsural pause. In several kinds of verse, its place is fixed; in others, it may fall in more than one place, and the choice is left to the poet. Of the former kind is the pentameter, of the latter the hexameter.

The proper place of the cæsural pause will be treated of, so far as shall be necessary, under each species of verse.

REM. 4. The effect of the cæsura is to connect the different words harmoniously together, and thus to give smoothness, grace, and sweetness, to the verse.

### DIFFERENT KINDS OF METRE.

#### DACTYLIC METRE.

§ 310. I. A hexameter or heroic verse consists of six feet. Of these the fifth is a dactyl, the sixth a spondee, and each of the other four either a dactyl or a spondee; as,

Āt tūbā | tērrībī- | -lēm sönī- | -tām prŏeūl | ærē cā- | -nōrō. Virg. A. 9, 508. Intōn | -sī cri- | -nōs lōn- | -gā cēr- | -vicē fū- | ēbānt. Tībult. 3, 4, 27. Lūdērē | quæ vēl- | -lēm cala- | -mō pēr- | -mīsīt ā- | -grēst. Virg. E. 1, 10.

1. The fifth foot is sometimes a spondee, and the verse in such case is called *spondaic*; as,

Cara de- | -um sobo- | -les mag- | -num Jovis | încre- | -mentum. Virg. E. 4, 49.

REMARK 1. In such verses, the fourth foot is commonly a dactyl, and the fish should not close with the end of a word. Spondaic lines are thought to be especially adapted to the expression of grave and solernn subjects.

2. A light and rapid movement is produced by the frequent recurrence of dactyls; a slow and heavy one by that of spondees; as,

Quādrūpē- | -dāntē pū- | -trēm sŏnī- | -tū quātīt | ūngūlā | cāmpum. Virg. A. 8, 596. Illi īn- | -tēr sē- | -sē māg- | -nā vī | brāchīā töllunt. Id. A. 8, 452.

Rem. 2. Variety in the use of dactyls and spondees in successive lines, has an agreeable effect. Hexameter verse commonly ends in a word of two or three syllables, and a monosyllable at the end of a line is generally ungraceful, but sometimes produces a good effect; as,

Stērnītūr, | ēxānī- | -mīsquē, trē- | -mēns prō- | -cūmbīt hū- | -mī bōs. Virg. A. 5, 481. Pārtūrī- | -ūnt mōn- | -tēs: nās- | -cētūr | rīdīcū- | -lūs mūs. Hor. A. P. 139.

3. The beauty and harmony of hexameter verse depend much on due attention to the cosura. (See § 309.) A line in which it is neglected is destitute of poetic beauty, and can hardly be distinguished from prose; as,

Romæ | moenia | terruit | impiger | Hannibal | armis. Enn.

4. The cæsural pause most approved in heroic poetry is that which occurs after the penthemimčris, i. e. after the arsis in the third foot. This is particularly distinguished as the heroic cœsura. Thus,

Āt domus | interi- | -or | re- | -gali | splendīdā | lūxū. Virg. A. 1, 637.

5. Instead of the preceding, a casura in the thesis of the third foot, or after the arsis of the fourth, was also approved as heroic; as,

Īnfān- | -dūm rē- | -gīnā || jū- | -bēs rēnŏ- | -vārē dŏ- | -lōrem. Virg. A. 2, 3. Īndē tō- | -rō pātēr | Ænē- | -ās || sīc | ōrsūs āb | āltō. Id. A. 2, 2.

REM. 3. When the cæsural pause occurs, as in the latter example, after the hephthemiméris, i. e. after the arsis of the fourth foot, another but slighter one is often found in the second foot; as,

Prīmă tě- | -nêt, || plān- | -sūquẽ võ- | -lāt || frēmī- | -tūquẽ sẽ- | -cūndo.  $\it Virg.~A.~5,~338.$ 

6. The cæsura after the third foot, dividing the verse into exactly equal parts, was least approved; as,

Cuī non | dictus Hj- | -las puer | et La- | -tonia | Delos. Virg. G. 3, 6.

REM. 4. The cesural pause between the fourth and fifth feet was considered as peculiarly adapted to pastoral poetry, particularly when the fourth foot was a dactyl, and was hence termed the bucolic cesura; as,

Stant vītū- | -li ēt tēnē- | -rīs mū- | -gītībūs || āērā | complênt. Nemes.

Note 1. The exesura after the arsis is sometimes called the *masculine* or *syllabic* cesura; that in the thesis, the *feminine* or *trochaic*, as a trochee immediately precedes. When a casura occurs in the fifth foot it is usually the trochaic casura, unless the foot is a spondee; as,

Fraxīnus | în sil- | -vis pul- | -chērrīmă, | pinus în | hortis. Virg. E. 7, 65.

(a,) It is to be remarked that two successive trochaic exsuras in the second and third feet are, in general, to be avoided, but they are sometimes employed to express irregular or impetuous motion; as Una Eu- | -rasque No- | -tasque ru- | -unt cre- | -berque pro- | -cellis. Virg. A. 1, 85.

(b.) Successive trochaic cæsuras are, in like manner, to be avoided in the third and fourth feet, but are approved in the first and second, in the fourth and fifth, and in the first, third and fifth. See Virg. A. 6, 651: 1, 94: and 6, 522.

Note 2. In the principal exsura of the verse poets frequently introduce a pause in the sense, which must be attended to in order to determine the place of the exsural pause. For in the common place for the casura in the third foot there is often a casura of the foot; while, in the fourth foot, a still more marked division occurs. In this case, the latter is to be considered as the principal casura, and distinguished accordingly; as,

Bellî | ferră- | -tōs pōs- | -tes, || pōr- | -tāsquĕ rĕ- | -frēgit. Hor. S. 1, 4, 61.

II. The *Priapēan* is usually accounted a species of hexameter. It is so constructed as to be divisible into two portions of three feet each, having generally a trochee in the first and fourth place, but often a spondee and rarely a daetyl; in the second, usually a daetyl; and an amphimacer and more rarely a daetyl in the third; as,

O co- | -lonia | quæ cupis | ponte | ludere | longo. Catull. 17, 1.

It is, however, more properly considered as choriambic metre, consisting of alternate Glyconics and Pherecratics. See § 316, IV. V. Thus,

O co- | -lonia, quæ | eŭpis Ponte | ludere lon- | -go.

Note. A regular hexameter verse is termed Priapēan, when it is so constructed as to be divisable into two portions of three feet each; as,

Tērtī<br/>ă | pārs pā- | -trī dátă || pārs dătă | tērtī<br/>ă | mātrī. Catull. 62, 64 See above, 6.

§ 311. III. A pentameter verse consists of five feet.

REMARK 1. It is generally, however, divided, in seanning into two hemistichs, the first consisting of two feet, either dactyls or spondees, followed by a long syllable; the last, of two dactyls, also followed by a long syllable; as,

> Nătū- | -ræ sĕquĭ- | -tūr || sēmīnă | qūisquĕ sŭ- | -æ. Prop. 3. 7, 20. Cārmīnī- | -būs vī- | -vēs || tēmpŭs īn | ōmnĕ mĕ- | -īs. Ovid.

 According to the more ancient and correct mode of scanning pentameter verse, it consists of five feet, of which the first and second may each be a dactyl or a spondee; the third is always a spondee; and the fourth and fifth are anapæsts; as,

Natū- | -rīē sēqui- | -tūr || sēm- | -īnă quīs- | -quĕ sǔæ. Cārmīnī- | -bās vī- | -vēs || tēm- | -pŭs īn ōm- | -nĕ mĕīs.

2. The cæsura, in pentameter verse, always occurs after the penthemimeris, i. e. at the close of the first hemistich. It very rarely lengthens a short syllable.

3. The pentameter rarely ends with a word of three syllables. In Ovid, it usually ends with a dissyllable.

Rem. 2. This species of verse is seldom used, except in connection with hexameter, a line of each recurring alternately. This combination is called elegiac verse. Thus,

Flēbīlīs īndīgnēs, Elēgējā, sēlvē capīllos.

Ah nīmīs ēx vērē nūne tībī nēmēn ērit! Ovid, Am. 3, 9, 3.

§ 312. IV. The tetrameter a priore, or Alcmanian dactylic tetrameter, consists of the first four feet of a hexameter, of which the fourth is always a dactyl; as,

Garrula | per ra- | -mos, avis | obstrepit. Sen. Œd. 454.

V. The tetrameter a posteriore, or spondaic tetrameter, consists of the last four feet of a hexameter; as,

Îbimus, | 0 soci- | -i, comi- | -tesque. Hor. Od. 1, 7, 26.

REMARK. The penultimate foot in this, as in hexameter verse, may be a spondee, but in this case the preceding foot should be a dactyl; as,

Mēnsō- | -rēm cŏhī- | -bēnt Ar- | -chỹtā. Hor. Od. 1, 28, 2.

VI. The dactylic trimeter consists of the last three feet of a hexameter; as,

Grāto | Pyrrhā sub | antro. Hor: Od. 1, 5, 3.

REMARK. But this kind of verse is more properly included in choriambio metre. See § 316, V.

VII. The trimeter catalectic Archilochian consists of the first five half feet of a hexameter, but the first and second feet are commonly dactyls; as,

Pūlvīs ět | ūmbră sŭ- | -mus. Hor. Od. 4, 7, 16.

VIII. The dactylic dimeter, or Adonic, consists of two feet, a dactyl and a spondee; as,

Rīsīt A- | -pollo. Hor. Od. 1, 10, 12.

IX. The  $\it \&Eolic\ pentameter\ consists$  of four dactyls preceded by a spondee, a trochee, or an iambus. Thus

X. The Phalæcian pentameter consists of a dactylic penthimimeris and a dactylic dimeter; as,

Vīsē | -bāt gēlī - | -dē || sīdērā | brūmæ. Boëthius.

REMARK. A trochee is sometimes found in the first place and an iambus in the first and second places.

XI. The Tetrameter Meiurus, or Faliscan consists of the last four feet of a hexameter, except that the last foot is an iambus instead of a spondee; as,

Ut novă | fruge gra- | vis Ceres | cat. Boethius.

XII. The Tetrameter Catalectic consists of the tetrameter a priore wanting the latter half of the concluding dactyl; as,

Omne homi- | -num genus | in ter- | -ris. Boethius,

#### ANAPÆSTIC METRE.

§ 313. I. The anapæstic monométer consists of two anapæsts; as,

Ululas- | -se canes. Sen.

II. The anapastic dimeter consists of two measures, or four anapasts; as,

Phăretræ- | -que graves | date sæ- | -va fero .... Sen.

REMARK 1. The first foot in each measure of anapæstic metre was very often changed to a dactyl or a spondee, and the second foot often to a spondee, and, in a few instances, to a dactyl.

REM. 2. Anapæstic verses are generally so constructed that each measure ends with a word, so that they may be written and read in lines of one, two, or more measures.

#### IAMBIC METRE.

§ 314. I. 1. The *iambic trimeter*, or *senarius*, consists of three iambic measures, or six iambic feet; as,

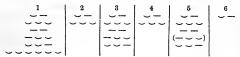
Phase- | -lus II- | -le, || quem | vide- | -tis hos- | -pites .... Catull. 4. 1.

- 2. The cæsura commonly occurs in the third but sometimes in the fourth foot.
- 3. The pure iambic measure was seldom used by the Latin poets, but to vary the rhythm spondees were introduced into the first, third, and fifth places. In every foot, also, except the last, which was always an iambus, a long syllable was often changed into two short ones, so that an anapæst or a dactyl was used for a spondee, and a tribrach for an iambus, but the use of the dactyl in the fifth place was very rare; as,

Quō, quō | scĕlēs- | -tī rūī- | -tǐs? āūt | cūr dēx- | -tĕrīs.... Hor. Epod. 7, 1. Ālītī- | -būs āt- | -quĕ cănī- | -būs hŏmī- | -cīdam Hēc- | -tŏrēm.... Id. Epod. 17, 12.

4. Sometimes, also, a proceleusmatic, or double pyrrhic, was used in the first place for a spondee. The writers of comedy, satire, and fable, admitted the spondee and its equivalents (the dactyl and anapoest) into the second and fourth places, as well as the first, third, and fifth.

5. The following, therefore, is the scale of the Iambic Trimeter:-



6. In the construction of the Iambic Trimeter an accent should fall on the second syllable of either the third foot or both the second and fourth feet; as,

Ibīs | Lībūr- | -nīs in- | tĕr āl- | -tă nā- | -vīum | . Utrūm- | -nĕ jūs- | -sī pēr- | -sĕquē'- | -mŭr ō- | -tīum. |

II. The scazon, or choliambus (lame iambic), is the iambic trimeter, with a spondee in the sixth foot, and generally an iambus in the fifth; as,

Cŭr în | theā- | -trūm, Cătă | seve- | -re, ve- | -nīstī? An ĭde- | ō tān- | -tūm ven- | -erās, | ŭt ex- | -īres? Mart. Ep. 1, 1, 3.

This species of verse is also called Hipponactic trimeter, from its inventor Hipponax.

III. The *iambic tetrameter* or *quadrātus*, called also from the number of its feet *octonarius*, a measure used by the comic poets, consists of four iambic measures, subject to the same variations as the iambic trimeter (I.); as,

Nunc hīc | dies | ăliam | vītam af- | -fert, ali- | -os mo- | -res pos- | -tulat. Ter. A. 1,2, 18.

REMARK. The cæsura regularly follows the second measure.

IV. The *iambic tetrameter catalectic* or *Hipponactic*, is the iambic tetrameter, wanting the last syllable, and having always an iambus in the seventh place, but admitting in the other places the same variations as the trimeter and tetrameter; as,

Depren- | -să nā- | -vīs īn | mărī, | vēsā- | -nīen- | -te ven- | -to. Catull. 25, 13.

V. The *iambic trimeter catalectic* or *Archilochian*, is the iambic trimeter (I), wanting the final syllable. Like the common iambic trimeter, it admits a spondee into the first and third places, but not into the fifth; as,

Včcā- | -tŭs āt- | -quĕ nōn | včcā- | -tŭs āu- | -dit. Hor. Od. 2, 18, 40. Trāhūnt- | -quĕ sīc- | -cās māch- | -īnæ | cărī- | -nas. Id. Od. 1, 4, 2.

VI. The *iambic dimeter* consists of two iambic measures, with the same variations as the iambic trimeter (I.); as,

Förtī | sĕquē- | -mūr pēc- | -tŏre. Hor. Epod. 1, 14. Cānīdī- | -ā trāc- | -tāvīt | dǎpēs. Id. Epod. 3, 8. Vīdē- | -rē pröpē- | -rāntēs | dŏmum. Id. Epod. 3, 62.

REMARK. The jambic dimeter is also called the Archilochian dimeter.

The following is its scale:-

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -- \\ -- \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -- \\ -- \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -- \\ -- \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -- \\ -- \end{bmatrix}$$

VII. The iambic dimeter hypermeter, called also Archilochian, is the iambic dimeter, with an additional syllable at the end; as,

Rēdē- | -git in | vērēs | timē- | -rēs. Hor. Od. 1, 37, 15.

REMARK. Horace always makes the third foot a spondee.

VIII. The *iambic dimeter acephalous* is the iambic dimeter, wanting the first syllable; as,

Non | ĕbūr | nĕque āu- | -rĕum.... Hor. Od. 2, 18, 1.

Remark. This kind of verse is sometimes scanned as a catalectic trochaic dimeter. See  $\S$  315, IV.

IX. The iambic dimeter catalectic, or Anacreontic, is the iambic dimeter, wanting the final syllable, and having always an iambus in the third foot; as,

Ut tī- | grīs ōr- | -bă gnā- | -tīs. Sen. Med. 863.

X. The Galliambus consists of two iambic dimeters catalectic, the last of which wants the final syllable.

REMARK 1. It was so denominated from the Galli or priests of Cybele, by whom it was used.

REM. 2. In the first foot of each dimeter the anapæst was generally preferred to the spondee. The catalectic syllable at the end of the first dimeter is long, and the second foot of the second dimeter is commonly a tribrach; as,

Super al- | -ta vec- | -tus A- | -tys | celeri | rate ma- | -ria. Catull, 63, 1.

REM. 3. The cæsura uniformly occurs at the end of the first dimeter.

#### TROCHAIC METRE.

- § 315. 1. Trochaic verses bear a near affinity to iambies. The addition or retrenchment of a syllable at the beginning of a pure iambic verse, renders it pure trochaic, and the addition or retrenchment of a syllable at the beginning of a pure trochaic line, renders it pure iambic, with the deficiency or redundancy of a syllable in each case at the end of the verse.
- I. The trochaic tetrameter catalectic consists of seven feet, followed by a catalectic syllable. In the first five places and very rarely in the sixth, it admits a tribrach, but in the seventh a trochee only. In the even places, besides the tribrach, it admits also a spondee, a dactyl, an anapæst, and sometimes a proceleusmatic; as,

Jūssūs | ēst īn | ērmīs | īrē: || pūrūs | īrē | jūssūs | ēst. Auct. P. Vēn. Rōmū | læās | īpsā | fēcit || cūm Sá- | -bīnīs | nūptī | -ās. Id. Dānāī | dēs, cē- | -ītē; | vēstrās || hīc dī- | -ēs quæ- | -rīt mā- | -nūs. Sen.

The following is its scale:-

REMARK 1. The pure trochaic verse was rarely used, and the dactyl very retry occurs in the fourth place. The cessural panse uniformly occurs after the fourth foot, thus dividing the verse into a complete dimeter and a catalectic dimeter. The comic writers introduced the spondee and its equivalent feet into the odd places.

REM. 2. The complete trochaic tetrameter or *octonarius* properly consists of eight feet, all trochees, subject, however, to the same variations as the catalectic tetrameter; as,

Īpsē | sāmmīs | sāxīs | fīxŭs | āspē- | -rīs, ē- | -vīscē- | -rātŭs. Enn.

II. The Sapphic verse, invented by the poetess Sappho, consists of five feet—the first a trochee, the second a spondee, the third a dactyl, and the fourth and fifth trochees; as,

Inte- | -ger vi- | - : , || scele- | -rīsque | pūrus. Hor. Od. 1, 22, 1.

- 1. Sappho, and, after her example, Catullus, sometimes made the second foot a trochee.
- 2. Those Sapphics are most harmonious which have the cæsura after the fifth semi-foot.

NOTE 1. In the composition of the Sapphic stanza, a word is sometimes divided between the end of the third Sapphic, and the beginning of the Adonic which follows; as,

Lābī- | -tūr rī- | -pā Jŏvē | nôn prŏ- | -bānte uxōrīŭs | āmnis. Hor. Od. 1, 2, 19. It has been thought by some that such lines should be considered as one Sapphic verse of seven feet, the fifth foot being either a spondee or a trochee.

NOTE 2. This verse is sometimes scanned as epichoriambic, having an epitrite in the first place, a choriambus in the second, and ending with an iambic sizygy catalectic; thus,

Integer vi- | -tæ, sceleris- | -que paras.

III. The *Phalaccian* verse consists of five feet—a spondee, a dactyl, and three trochees; as,

Non est | vivere, | sed va- | -lere | vita. Mart.

REMARK 1. Instead of a spondee as the first foot, Catullus sometimes uses a trochee or an iambus. This writer also sometimes uses a spondee in the second place.

Rem. 2. The Phalacian verse is sometimes called hendecasyllabic, as consisting of eleven syllables; but that name does not belong to it exclusively.

IV. The trochaic dimeter catalectic consists of three feet, properly all trochees, and a catalectic syllable, but admitting also in the second place a spondee or a dactyl; as,

Nou č | -būr nč- | -que āūrč- | -um. Hor. Od. 2, 18, 1. ` Lēnīs | āc mödī- | -cūm flū- | -ēns Aūrā, | nče vēr- | -gēns lā- | -tus. Sen. Œd. 887.

Note. This measure is the same as the acephalous iambic dimeter (see § 14, VIII.), and it is not important whether it be regarded as iambic or trochaic.

#### CHORIAMBIC METRE.

§ 316. (a.) In a pure choriambic verse each metre except the last is a choriambus, and the last an Iambic syzygy.

Note. A sponder and iambus, i. e. a third epitrite, are sometimes used in place of the lambic syzygy.

- (b.) An epichoriambic verse is composed of one or more choriambi with some other foot, especially a ditrochee or a second epitrite, joined with it.
- I. The choriambic pentameter consists of a spondee, three choriambi, and an iambus; as,

Tũ nẽ | quæsiĕris, | seirĕ nĕfās, | quêm mihi, quêm tibi., Hor. Od. 1, 11, 1.

II. The choriambic tetrameter consists of three choriambi, or feet of equal length, and a Bacchius; as,

Omně němůs | cům flůvřīs, | ōmně cănāt | profuudum. Claud.

2. In this verse Horace substituted a spondee for the iambus contained in the first choriambus; as,

Tē dēos ō- | -rō, Sỹ bărīn | cūr properes | amando. Hor. Od. 1, 8, 2.

 $3.\,$  Some scan this verse as an epichoriambic tetrameter catalectic, beginning with the second epitrite.

III. 1. The Asclepiadic tetrameter (invented by the poet Asclepiades) consists of a spondee, two choriambi, and an iambus; as,

Mæcē- | -nās, ătávīs || ēdītē rēg- | -ībus. Hor. Od. 1, 1. 1.

- 2. This form is invariably observed by Horace; but other poets sometimes, though rarely, make the first foot a dactyl.
  - 3. The cæsural pause occurs at the end of the first choriambus.
- 4. This measure is sometimes scanned as a dactylic pentameter catalectic. See § 311, III. Thus,

Mæce- | -nas, ata- | vis | edite | regibus.

- IV. 1. The choriambic trimeter, or Glyconic (invented by the poet Glyeo), consists of a spondee, a choriambus, and an iambus; as, Sie të | divă potens | Cypri ... Hor. Od. 1, 3, 1.
  - 2. The first foot is sometimes an iambus or a trochee.
- 3. When the first foot is a spondee, the verse might be scanned as a dactylic trimeter. Thus,
- Sie të | divă po- | -tens Cypri.
- V. 1. The choriambic trimeter catalectic, or Pherecratic (so called from the poet Pherecrates), is the Glyconic deprived of its final syllable, and consists of a spondee, a choriambus, and a catalectic syllable; as,

Grato, | Pyrrha, sub an- | -tro. Hor. Od. 1, 5, 3.

- 2. The first foot was sometimes a trochee or an anapest, rarely an iambus.
- 3. When the first foot is a spondee, this measure might be scanned as a dactylic trimeter. See § 312, VI.
- 4. The Pherecratic subjoined to the Glyconic produces the Priapean verse. See § 310, II.
- VI. 1. The choriambic dimeter consists of a choriambus and a Bacchīus: as.
  - Lydia die | per omnes. Hor. Od. 1, 8, 1.
- 2. This verse is by some called the choriambic dimeter catalectic. Cf. § 316, (a.)

#### IONIC METRE.

- § 317. I. The Ionic a majore, or Sotadic, (from the poet Sotades), consists of three greater Ionics and a spondee.
- 1. The Ionic feet, however, are often changed into ditrochees, and either of the two long syllables in those feet into two short ones; as,

Hās, cūm gēmī- | -nā cōmpēdē, | dēdīcāt cā- | -tēnās, Sātūrnē, tī- | -bī Zōīlūs, | ānnūlōs prī- | -ōrēs. Mart.

2. Hence the following is its scale:-

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Note. The final syllable, by § 301, note, may be short.

II. 1. The Ionic a minore consists generally of verses of three or four feet, which are all smaller Ionics; as,

Păer ales, | tībī tēlās, | operosæ- | -que Minervæ... Hor. Od. 3, 12, 4.

2. In this verse, as in the anapæstic, no place is assigned to the pause; because, since the metres, if rightly constructed, end with a word, the effect of a pause will be produced at the end of each metre.

#### COMPOUND METRES.

- § 318. Compound metre is the union of two species of metre in the same verse.
- I. The dactylico-iambic metre or Elegiambus consists of a dactylic penthemimeris (312, VII.), followed by an iambic dimeter (§ 314, VI.); as,

Scrībērē | vērsīcu- | -līs | amō- | -rē pēr- | -cūlsūm | gravī. Hor. Epod. 11, 2.

II. The *iambico-dactylic* metre or *Iambelegus* consists of the same members as the preceding, but in a reversed order; as,

Nīvēs- | -que dē- | -dūcunt | Jovēm : || nunc mare, | nunc silu- | -æ. Hor. Epod. 13, 2.

Note. The members composing this and the preceding species of verse are often written in separate verses.

III. The greater Alcaic consists of an iambic penthemimeris, i. e. of two iambic feet and a long catalectic syllable, followed by a choriambus, and an iambus; as,

Vides | ŭt al- | -ta || stet nive can- | -didum. Her. Od. 1, 9, 1.

REMARK 1. The first foot is often a spondee.

REM. 2. The cæsura uniformly occurs after the catalectic syllable.

REM. 3. This verse is sometimes so scanned as to make the last two feet dactyls.

IV. The dactylico-trochaic or Archilochian heptameter, consists of the dactylic tetrameter a priöre (§ 312), followed by three trochees; as,

Sölvítűr | ācrīs hī- | -ēms grā- | -tā vícě || vērīs | ēt Fá- | -vont. Hor. Od. 1, 4, 1.

REMARK. The cæsura occurs between the two members.

V. The dactylico-trochaic tetrameter or lesser Alcaic, consists of two dactyls, followed by two trochees, i. e. of a dactylic dimeter followed by a trochaic monometer; as,

Levia | personu- | -ere | saxa. Hor. Od. 1, 17, 12.

## COMBINATION OF VERSES IN POEMS.

- § 319. 1. A poem may consist either of one kind of verse only or of a combination of two or more kinds.
- 2. A poem in which only one kind of verse is employed, is called carmen monocolon; that which has two kinds, dicolon; that which has three kinds, tricolon.
- 3. When the poem returns, after the second line, to the same verse with which it began, it is called distrophon; when after the third line, tristrophon; and when after the fourth, tetrastrophon.
- 4. The several verses which occur before the poem returns to the kind of verse with which it began, constitute a stanza or strophe.
- 5. A poem consisting of two kinds of verse, when the stanza contains two verses, is called diciolon distription, (see § 320, 3); when it contains three, dici-

lon tristrophon, (Auson. Profess. 21); when four, dicolon tetrastrophon, (§ 320, 2); and when five, dicolon pentastrophon.

A poem consisting of three kinds of verse, when the stanza contains three verses, is called tricolon tristrophon, (§ 320, 15); when four, tricolon tetrastrophon, (§ 320, 1).

#### HORATIAN METRES.

§ 320. The different species of metre used by Horace in his lyric compositions are twenty. The various forms in which he has employed them, either separate or in conjunction, are nineteen, arranged, according to the order of preference given to them by the poet, in the following

#### SYNOPSIS.

1. Two greater Alcaics (§ 318, III.), one Archilochian iambic dimeter hypermeter (§ 314, vii.), and one lesser Alcaic (§ 318, v.); as,

Vīdēs, ŭt āltā stēt nīvē cāndīdum Sörāctē, nēc jām sūstīnēānt ŏnŭs Silve laborantes, gelüque Flumina constiterint acuto.

(Lib. 1, 9.)

REMARK. This is called the Horatian stanza, because it seems to have been a favorite with Horace, being used in thirty-seven of his odes.

2. Three Sapphies (§ 315, 11.) and one Adonic (§ 312, VIII.); as, Jām sătīs tērrīs nīvīs ātquě dīræ

Grāndīnīs mīsīt pātēr, ēt, rūbēntē Dēxtērā sācrās jācūlātūs ārces, Tērrūīt ūrbem.

(Lib. 1, 2.)

3. One Glyconic (§ 316, IV.) and one Asclepiadic (§ 316, III.); as, Sic të Divă pătens Cypri,

Sīc frātrēs Helenæ, lūcīdā sīdēra... (Lib. 1, 3.)

4. One iambic trimeter (§ 314, 1.) and one iambic dimeter (§ 314, vi.); as,

Ibīs Lībūrnīs īnter ālta nāvium. Amīce, propugnācula.

(Epod. 1.)

5. Three Asclepiadies (§ 316, III.) and one Glyconic (§ 316, IV.); as,

Scrībērīs Vāriō fortis, et hostium Vīctor, Mæoniī cārminis āliti,

Quām rēm cūmquē fērēx nāvībūs āut ēquis Mīlēs, tē dūcē, gēssērit. (Lib. 1, 6.)

6. Two Asclepiadics (§ 316, III.), one Pherecratic (§ 316, v.), and one Glyconic (§ 316, IV.); as,

> Diānām, těněræ, dicitě virgines: Intonsum, pueri, dicite Cynthium, Latonamque súpremo Dīlēctām penītūs Jovi.

(Lib. 1, 21.)

7. The Asclepiadic (§ 316, III.) alone; as, Mæcenās atavis edite regibus. (Lib. 1, 1.) 8. One dactylic hexameter (§ 310, I.) and one dactylic tetrameter a posteriore (§ 312, v.); as,

Laudabunt alii claram Rhodon, aut Mitylenen,

Aut Ephësum, bimarisve Corinthi... (Lib. 1, 7.)

9. The choriambic pentameter (§ 316, 1.) alone; as,

Tū nē quæsieris, scīre nefās, quem mīhī, quem tībi... (Lib. 1, 11.)

10. One dactylic hexameter (§ 310, 1.) and one iambic dimeter (§ 314, VI.); as,

Nox ěrát, ēt cœlo fülgēbāt lūna sěrēno

Inter minora sidera. (Epod 15.)

11. The iambic trimeter (§ 314, I.) containing spondees; as,

Jām. jam ēfficēcī dō mánūs scientiæ. (Epod. 17.)

12. One choriambic dimeter (§ 316, vi.) and one choriambic tetrameter (§ 316, ii.) with a variation; as,

Lýdíá, dic, pěr ömnes Të Děōs ōrō, Sýbărîn cür prŏpěrās ămāndo... (Lib. 1, 8

13. One dactylic hexameter (§ 310, I.) and one iambic trimeter without spondees (§ 314, I.); as,

Āltērā jām tērītūr bēllīs cīvīlībūs ætas; Sūīs ēt īpsā Rōmā vīrībūs rūit. (Epōd. 16.)

14. One dactylic hexameter (§ 310, I.) and one dactylic penthemimeris (§ 312, VII.); as,

Dīff ügērē nīvēs: rēdēunt jām grāmīnā cāmpīs,
Arborībusquē comæ. (Lib. 4, 7.)

15. One iambic trimeter (§ 314, I.), one dactylic trimeter catalectic (§ 312, VII.), and one iambic dimeter (§ 314, VI.); as,

Pēttī, nīhīl mē, sīcūt āntēā, jūvat Scrībērē vērsīcūlos,

erībērē vērsīcūlos, Amōrē pērc lsūm grāvi. (Epoa. 11.)

Note. The second and third lines are often written as one verse. See § 318, 1.

16. One dactylic hexameter (§ 310, I.), one iambic dimeter (§ 314, VI.), and one dactylic penthemimeris (§ 312, VII.); as,

Hörrídá tempestas cælüm contraxit; et imbres Nivesque dedücünt Jövem:

Nanc mare, nanc siluæ...

(Epod. 13.)

Note. The second and third lines of this stanza, also, are often written as one verse. See § 318, 11.

17. One Archilochian heptameter (§ 318, IV.) and one iambic trimeter catalectic (§ 314, V.); as,

Sölvítűr áeris hiems grátá více veris ét Fávonî, Tráhuntque siceas máchinæ cárinas. (Lib. 1, 4.)

18. One iambic dimeter acephalous (§ 314, VIII.) and one iambic trimeter catalectic (§ 314, v.); as,

Non čbūr něque šūrčum Měā rěnīdět in domo lăcūnar. (Lib. 2, 18.)

 The Ionic a minore (§ 317, II.) alone; as, Mīsērārum ēst nēgue ámorī darē lūdām, nēguē dūlcī... (Lib. 3, 12.)

## § 321. A METRICAL KEY TO THE ODES OF HORACE.

Containing, in alphabetic order, the first words of each, with a reference to the numbers in the preceding Synopsis, where the metre is explained.

Æli, vetustoNo. 1	Mollis inertia	
Æquam memento 1	Montium custos	
Albi, ne doleas 5	Motum ex Metello	
Altera jam teritur13	Musis amīcus	1
Angustam, amīce 1	Natis in usum	1
At, O deörum 4	Ne forte credas	1
Audivēre, Lyce 6	Ne sit ancillæ	
Bacchum in remotis 1	Nolis longa feræ	8
Beātus ille 4	Nondum subacta	1
Cœlo supīnas	Non ebur neque aureum	
Cœlo tonantem 1	Non semper imbres	
Cur me querēlis 1	Nou usitatà	
Delicta majõrum 1	Non vides, quanto	
Descende cœlo 1	Nox erat	
Diānam, tenèræ 6	Nullam, Vare, sacrâ	9
Diffugëre nives14	Nullus argento	
Dive, quem proles 2	Nunc est bibendum	
Divis orte bonis	O crudēlis adhuc	
Donārem patēras 7	O diva, gratum	
Donec gratus crain tibi	O fons Bandusiæ	
Eheu! fugāces	O matre pulchrä	
Est mihi nonum	O nata mecum	
Et ture et fidibus 3	O navis, ref ĕrent	
Exēgi monumentum		
Extremum Tanaim 5	O sæpe mecum O Venus, regina	,
Faune, nymphärum 2		
Festo quid potius die	Odi profānumOtium Divos	
Hercălis ritu 2		
Horrida tempestas16	Parcius junctas Parcus Deōrum	
Ibis Liburnis 4	Parentis olim	
Icci, beātis	Pastor quum traheret	
Ille et nefasto 1	Percicos odi, puer	
Impios parræ 2	Petti, nihil me	
Inclūsam Danăën	Phæbe, silvarumque	
Intactis opulentior	Phœbus volentem	
Intěger vitæ	Pindarum quisquis	
Intermissa, Venus, diu 3	PoseImur: si quid	
Jam jam efficāci11	Quæ cura Patrum	
Jam pauca arātro 1	Qualem ministrum	
Jam satis terris 2	Quando repostum	
Jam veris comites 5	Quantum distet ab Inacho	
Justum et tenācem 1	Quem tu, Melpomene	
Landābunt alii 8	Quem virum aut heroa	
Lupis et agnis 4	Quid bellicosus	1
Lydia, dic, per omnes12	Quid dedicatum	1
Mæcēnas atāvis 7	Quid fles, Asterie	6
Malā solūta 4	Quid immerentes	4
Martiis cælebs 2	Quid obserātis	
Mater sæva Cupidĭnum 3	Quid tibi vis	8
Mercŭri, facunde 2	Quis desiderio	5
Mercŭri, nam te 2	Quis multa gracilis	6
Miserārum est	Quo me, Bacche	3

# 360 PROSODY.—VERSIFICATION—HORATIAN METRES. § 321.

Quo, quo, scelesti ruitis No. 4	Tu ne quæsiĕris
Quum tu, Lydia 3	Tvrrhēna regum 1
Rectius vives 2	Ulla si juris 2
Rogare longo 4	Uxor paupėris Ibyci 3
Scriberis Vario 5	Velox amœnum 1
Septimi, Gades 2	Vides, ut altā
Sic te Diva potens 3	Vile potābis 2
Solvītur acris hiems	Vitas hinnuleo 6
Te maris et terræ 8	Vixi puellis 1

The following are the single metres used by Horace in his lyric compositions, viz:—

- 1. Dactylic Hexameter.
- 2. Dactylic Tetrameter a posteriori.
- 3. Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic.
- 4. Adonic.
- 5. Trimeter Iambic.
- 6. Iambic Trimeter Catalectic.
- Iambic Dimeter.
   Archilochian Iambic Dimeter Hypermeter.
- 9. Iambic Dimeter Acephalous. 10. Sapphic.

- Choriambic Pentameter.
   Choriambic Tetrameter.
- 13. Asclepiadic Tetrameter.
- 13. Asclepiadic Tetramete 14. Glyconic.
- 15. Pherecratic.
- 16. Choriambic Dimeter.
- 17. Ionic a minore.
- Greater Alcaic.
   Archilochian Heptameter.
- 20. Lesser Alcaic.

## APPENDIX.

#### GRAMMATICAL FIGURES.

§ 322. Certain deviations from the regular form and construction of words, are called *grammatical figures*. These may relate either to Orthography and Etymology, or to Syntax.

## I. FIGURES OF ORTHOGRAPHY AND ETYMOLOGY.

These are distinguished by the general name of metaplasm.

- Prosthésie is the prefixing of a letter or syllable to a word; as, gnātus, for nātus; tētāli, for tāli. These, however, are rather the ancient customary forms, from which those now in use were formed by aphærësis.
- Aphærēsis is the taking of a letter or syllable from the beginning of a word; as, 'st, for est; rābōnem, for arrābōnem.
- 3. Epenthésis is the insertion of a letter or syllable in the middle of a word; as, ālitāum, for ālitum; Māvors, for Mars.
- 4. Syncöpe is the omission of a letter or syllable in the middle of a word; as, defin, for deōrum; meâm factâm, for meōrum factōrum; sæcla, for sæcāla; flesti, for flevisti; rēpostus, for répostus; aspris, for aspēris.
- Crasis is the contraction of two vowels into one; as, cogo, for coago; nil, for nihil.
- Paragoge is the addition of a letter or syllable to the end of a word; as, med, for me; claudier, for claudi.
- Apocope is the omission of the final letter or syllable of a word; as, mēn', for mēne; Antôni, for Antônii.
- 8. Antithesis is the substitution of one letter for another; as, olli, for illi; optimus, for optimus; afficio, for adficio. O is often thus used for u, especially after v; as, volus, for vultus; sercom, for servum. So after qu; as, æquom, for æquum.
- 9. Metathēsis is the changing of the order of letters in a word; as, pistris, for pristis.

#### II. FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

- **323.** The figures of Syntax are ellipsis, pleonasm, enalläge, and hyperbäton.
- 1. (a.) Ellipsis is the omission of some word or words in a sentence; as,
- Aiunt, seil. hömines. Dārīus Hystaspis, seil. fīlius. Căno, seil. ègo. Quid multa? seil. dīcam. Ex quo, seil. tempöre. Fērīna, seil. caro.
  - (b.) Ellipsis includes asynděton, zeugma, syllepsis, and prolepsis.
- (1.) Asyndêton is the omission of the copulative conjunction; as, abiit, excessit, evasit, evasit, evasit, evasit, evasit, evasit.

- (2) (a.) Zeugma is the uniting of two nouns or two infinitives to a verb, which, as to its meaning, is applicable to only one of them; as, Pācem an bellum girens: (Sall.) where girens is applicable to bellum only, while pācem requires dyöre. Semperne in sanguine, ferro, fūgā versābimur? (Id.) where the verb does not properly apply to ferro.
- (b.) Nēgo is often thus used with two propositions, one of which is affirmative; as, Nēgoat Casārem mansūrum, postulātāque interposita esse, for dicuntque postulātā... Cic. See § 209, Note 4.
- (c) When an adjective or verb, referring to two or more nouns, agrees with one, and is understood with the rest, the construction is also sometimes called zeugma, but more commonly syllepsis; as, Ei génus, et virtus, nisi cum re, vilior algā est. Hor. Câper tibi salvus et hedi. Virg. Quanvis ille niger, quanvis tu candida esses. Id.
- (3.) Syllepsis is when an adjective or verb, belonging to two or more nouns of different genders, persons, or numbers, agrees with one rather than another; as, Attönti nôtitâte pôvent Baucis, timidusque Phillemon. Ovid. Pròcumbit úterque prônus hàmi, i. e. Deucâllon et Pyrrha. Id. Sustūlmus mānus et ēgo et Balbus. Cic. So, lpse cum frâtre âdesse jussi sūmus. Id. Prôjectisque âmicalo et libris. Curt. See §§ 205, R. 2, and 209, R. 12, (3.) and (7.)
- (4) Prôlepsis is when the parts, differing in number or person from the whole, are placed after it, the verb or adjective not being repeated; as, Principes utrinque puquam cirbant, ab Sabinis Mettius Curtius, ab Rômânis Hostus Hostilius. Liv. Boni quónium convenimus ambo, tu câlamos inflâre, êgo dicêre versus. Virg.
- 2. (a.) Pleonasm is using a greater number of words than is necessary to express the meaning; as,

Sie ore löcüta est. Virg. Qui măgis vêre vincere quam diu imperare mălit. Liv. Nemo unus. Cic. Forte fortună. 1d. Prudens sciens. Ter.

- (b.) Under pleonasm are included parelcon, polysynděton, hendiădys, and periphrăsis.
- (1.) Păreleon is the addition of an unnecessary syllable or particle to pronouns, verbs, or adverbs; as, ẽgômet, dġedum, fortassean. Such additions, however, usually modify the meaning in some degree.
- (2.) Pôlýsyndéton is a redundancy of conjunctions; as, Una Eurusque Nötusque ruunt créberque procellis Africus. Virg.
- (3.) Hendiādys is the expression of an idea by two nouns connected by et, -que, or alque, instead of a noun and a limiting adjective or genitive; as, Pate-ris tibāmus et auro, for aureis pātēris. Virg. Libro et silvestri sūbēre clausam, for libro subēris. Id. Cristis et auro. Ovid. Met. 3, 32.
- (4.) Përiphräsis or circumbonitio is a circuitous mode of expression; as, Tënëri fætus orium, i. e. agni. Virg.
- (a.) Enallige is a change of words, or a substitution of one gender, number, case, person, tense, mood, or voice of the same word for another.
- (b.) Enalläge includes antimeria, heterösis, antiptösis, synësis, and anacolüthon.
- (1) Antiméria is the use of one part of speech for another, or the abstract for the concrete; as, Nostrum istud vivère triste, for nostra vita. Pers. Alluderas. Id. Conjugium vidébit? for conjugem. Virg.
- (2.) Heterösis is the use of one form of noun, pronoun, verb, etc., for another; as, Ego quòque una perco, quod mihi est cărius, for qui mihi sum cărior. Ter.

Rōmānus prælio victor, for Rōmāni victōres. Liv. Many words are used by the poets in the plural instead of the singular; as, colla, corda, ōra, etc. See § 98. Me truncus illapsus cêrebro sustilêrad, for sustilisset. Hor. See § 259, R. 5.

(3.) Antiptosis is the use of one case for another; as, Cui nunc cognomen Iulo, for Iulus. Virg. § 204, R. 8. Uxor invicti Jovis esse nescis, for te asse uxo-

rem. Hor. § 210, R. 6.

- (4.) Syněsis, or synthésis, is adapting the construction to the sense of a word, rather than to its gender or number; as, Sübeunt Tégea jüventus auxilio tardi. Stat. Concursus pôptili mīrantium quid rei est. Liv. Pars in crācem acti. Sall. Ubi illie est seēlus, qui me perddūt? Ter. Id men minime refert, qui sum nātu maximus. Id. See § 205, R. 3, (1), and (3), and § 206, (12.)
- (5.) Anàcolathon is a disagreement in construction between the latter and former part of a sentence; as, Nam nos omnes, quibns est àlicumle àliquis objectublos, omne quod est intérea tempus, prinspuam id resclum est, lucro est. Te In this example, the writer began as if he intended to say lucro habémus, amended as if he had said nôbis omnibus, leaving nos omnes without its verb.
- (a.) Hyperbaton is a transgression of the usual order of words or clauses.
- (b.) Hýperbăton includes ănaströphe, hystěron prötěron, hýpallăge, synchýsis, tmēsis, and părenthěsis.
- (1.) Anaströphe is an inversion of the order of two words; as, Transtra per et rêmos, for per transtra. Virg. Collo dâre brâchia circum, for circumdire. Id. Now êrit ùna sûper, for săpêrêril. Ovid. El făcit are, for airfiatt. Lucr.
- (2.) Hysteron proteron is reversing the natural order of the sense; as, Moriamur, et in media arma ruamus. Virg. Valet atque vivit. Ter.
- (3.) Hýpalläge is an interchange of constructions; as, In nóva fert ănimus mutâtas dicère formas corpora, for corpôra mutâta in nóvas formas. Ovid. Dâre classibus Austros, for dâre classes Austris. Virg.
- (4.) Synchysis is a confused position of words; as, Saxa vocant Itāli, mēdii quæ in fluctībus, āras, for quæ saxa in mēdiis fluctībus, Itāli vocant āras. Virg.
- (5.) The sis or diacope is the separation of the parts of a compound word as, Septem subject trion gens, for septemtrion. Virg. Que me cumque vocanterse. He per the per, inquam, gratum feebris. Cic.
- (6) Părenthēšis or dialijsis îs the insertion of a word or words în a sentence interrupting the natural connection; as, Tityre dum rédeo, (brevis est via,) pasee cipellus. Virg.

REMARK. To the above may be added archaism and Hellenism, which belong both to the figures of etymology and to those of syntax.

- (1.) Archaism is the use of ancient forms or constructions; as, aulāt, for aulat; sēnāti, for sēnātis; fual, for sēt; prohibesso, for prohiburo; impetrossēre, for impetrātivum esse; fairer, for fair; nēvu, for non; endo, for in;—Opēram ābātītur, for opērā. Ter. Quid tībi hanc cūrātio est rem? Plaut.
- (2.) Hellenism is the use of Greek forms or constructions; as, Hɨlene, for Helena; Antiphon, for Antipho; aurās (gen.), for aura; Pallādas, Pallāda, for Pallādas, Pallādas, Torādas, Torādabus, Trādaes;—Abstinēto irārum. Hor. Tempus dēsistēre pugnæ. Virg.
- § 324. (1.) To the grammatical figures may not improperly be subjoined certain others, which are often referred to in philological works, and which are called

#### TROPES AND FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

(2.) A rhetorical figure is a mode of expression different from the direct and simple way of expressing the same sense. The turning of a word from its original and customary meaning, is called a trope. 1. (a.) A metaphor is the transferring of a word from the object to which it properly belongs, and applying it to another, to which that object has some analogy; as, Ridet åger, The field smiles. Virg. Atta surva, The golden age. Ovid. Naufrägin förtäme, The wreck of fortune. Cic. Mentis ceili, The eyes of the mind. Id. Virtua animum glövire stimülis consitat. The harshness of a metaphor is often softened by means of quasi, tamquam, quidam, or ut ita dicam; as, In una philosophia quasi taberniculum vitus suw collocarunt. Id. Opimum quoddam et tamquam adipatæ dictionis génus. If

(b.) Cătachrēsis or ăbūsio is a bold or harsh metaphor; as, Vir grēgis ipse căper. Virg. Eurus per Sicălus ĕquītāvit undas. Hor.

- 2. Melonymy is substituting the name of an object for that of another to which it has a certain relation; as the cause for the effect, the container for what is contained, the property for the substance, the sign for the thing signified, and their containers; the parts of the body for certain affections; the jossessor for the thing possessed; place and time for the persons or things which they comprise, etc.; as, Mortales, for hömines. Virg. Amor däri Martis, i.e. belli. Id. Frajuse Cervicem appellamas, vinum autem Libérum. Cic. Cigo vigiliam meam this trädére, i. e. meam câram. Id. Pallida mors. Hor. Hausit păterum, i. e. vinum. Virg. Vina côrdund; t. e. pâlerum. Id. Necte ternos colors. I. e. chai fla diversi coloris. Id. Cedant arma toga; i. e. bellum păci. Cic. Secolla mitescent, i. e. hömines în seculis. Virg. Vivat Pacarius vel Nestor totum. Juv. Doctrină Gravei anos săpérâbat, Cic. Fagi centum Suevõrum ad ripas Rhein consciderunt, tor pâgôrum incolae. Cœs. Tempôra âmicôrum, for res adverse. Cic. Claudius lêge pracdâdivia vênălis pêpendit, for Claudii prædium. Suet. Vici ad Jänum médium sédentes, for Jāni vicum. Cic.
- 3. Synecdische is putting a whole for a part, a genus for a species, a singular for a plural, and their contraries; also the material for the thing made of it; a definite for an indefinite number, etc.; as, Fontem fêrêbant. Id. Tectum, for dômus. Id. Armāto milite complent, for armātis militibus. Id. Ferrum, for glādius. Id. Qui Corinthiis opëribus abundant, i. e. rāsis. Cic. Urbem, urbem, mi Rāfe, cole, i. e. Rômam. Cic. Centum puer artium, i. e. multirum.

4. Irony is the intentional use of words which express a sense contrary to that which the writer or speaker means to convey; as, Salve bone vir, carasti probe. Ter. Egrégiam véro laudem, et spôlia ampla réfertis, taque, puerque taus. Virg.

Hÿperböle is the magnifying or diminishing of a thing beyond the truth;
 as, Ipse arduus, altaque pulsat sūdēra. Virg. Octor Euro. Id.

 Mětálepsis is the including of several tropes in one word; as, Post áliquot ăristas. Virg. Here aristas is put for messes, and this for annos.

7. (a.) Allegory is a consistent series of metaphors, designed to illustrate one subject by another; as, O navis, référent in mare te novi fluctus. Hor.

(b.) An obscure allegory or riddle is called an anigma; as, Dic, quibus in terris tres patent culi spatium non amplius ulnas. Virg.

- 8. Antônômásia is using a proper noun for a common one, and the contrary; as, Irus et est subito, qui môdo Creesus êrat, for pauper and dives. Ovid. So, by periphrasis, pôtor Idhôdau, for Gallus. Hor. Eversor Carthâginis, for Scipio. Quint. Elôquentia princeps, for Cicero. Id. Tydides, for Diômêdes. Virg.
- 9. Litôtes is a mode of expressing something by denying the contrary; as, Non laudo, I blame. Ter. Non innocia verba. Virg.
- Antiphräsis is using a word in a sense opposite to its proper meaning;
   as, Auri sacra fämes. Virg.
- il. Euphemism is the use of softened language to express what is offensive or distressing; as, Si quid accidisset Cesări, i. e. si mortuus esset. Vell.
- 12. Antinacties or punning is the use of the same word in different senses; a, Quis regret Zhave natum de stirpe Nërönem? Sustulit hie matrem, sustulit ille patrem. Epigr. Amari jucundam est, si carctur ne quid insit amari. Cic.

13. Anaphora or ēpānāphōra is the repetition of a word at the beginning of successive clauses; as Nililne te nocturnum prastidum pātātā, nihil urbis vigitūr, nihil timor popāli, etc. Cic. Te, dukis conjux, te, solo in litore sēcum, te, vēniente die, te, dēcēdente, canēbat. Virg.

14. Epistrophe is the repetition of a word at the end of successive clauses; as, Pænos populus Romanus justitia vicit, armis vicit, libéralitate vicit. Cic. In

pure Latin this figure is called conversio.

15. Symplice is the repetition of a word at the beginning, and of another at the end, of successive clauses, and hence it includes the anaphora and the epistropher, as, Quis légent tálit? Rullus: Quis migrem populi partem suffraguis privaccit? Rullus: Quis comitius profuit? Idem Rullus. Cic.

16. Epănălepsis is a repetition of the same word or sentence after interven-

ing words or clauses. See Virg. Geor. II. 4-7.

- 17. Anādiplūsis is the use of the same word at the end of one clause, and the beginning of another; as, Sequitur pulcherrimus Astur, Astur equo fulens. Virg. A. 10, 180. Nunc citiam audes in hōrum conspectum venīre, venīre audes in hōrum conspectum? Cic. This is sometimes called epimastrophe.
- 18. Epănădiplōsis is the use of the same word both at the beginning and end of a sentence; as, Crescit ămor nummi, quantum ipsa pēcūnia crescit. Juv.
- 19. Epānādos or rēgressio is the repetition of the same words in an inverted order; as, Crūdēlis matter māgis, an puer improbus ille? Improbus ille puer, crūdēlis tu quoque, māter. Virg.
- 20. Epizeuxis is a repetition of the same word for the sake of emphasis; as, Excitate, excitate eum ab inféris. Cic. Ah Corydon, Córydon, qua te démentia cépit Virg. Dianus, binus, utcumque praecèdes. Hor.
- 21. Climax is a gradual amplification by means of a continued anadiplosis, each successive clause beginning with the conclusion of that which precedes it; as, Quæ reliqua spes manet libertātis, si illis et quod libet, licet; et quod licet, possunt; et quod possunt, andent; et quod audent, robis molestum non est? Cic. This, in pure Latin, is called gràdual.
- 22. Incrémentum is an amplification without a strict climax; as, Fácinus est, vintiri cirem Röminum; seclus, verbérāri; própe parricidium, něcari; quid dicam in crécem tolli F Cic.
- 23. Polyptātom is the repetition of a word in different cases, genders, numbers, tenses, etc.; as, Jan clipeus clipeis, umbone répellitur umbo; ense minax ensis, pêde pes, et caspide cuspis. Stat.
- 24. Paregmēnon is the use of several words of the same origin, in one sentence; us, Abese non pôtest, quin éjusdem hóminis sit, qui improbos probet, probos improbare. Cic. Istam pugnam pugnābo. Plant.
- 25. Pārōnōmāsia is the use of words which resemble each other in sound; as, Amor et melle et felle est fēcundissimus. Plant. Cirem bōnārum artium, bōnārum partium. Cic. Amantes sunt āmentes. Ter. This figure is sometimes called agaōntātio.
- 26. Hönweoprönhiron or alliteration is the use in the same sentence of several words beginning with the same letter; as, O Tite, täte Tini, tibi tanta, tijranne, tälisti. Enn. New patrie välidas in viseira vertite vires. Virg.
- 27. Antithėsis is the placing of different or opposite words or sentiments in contrast; as, Hūjus brātūbais difficilius est exitum quam principium invēnīre (Cæsar beneficiis ac mūnificentiā magnus habēbātur; integritāte vitæ Cato. Sall.
- 28. Oxymoron unites words of contrary significations, thus producing a seeming contradiction; as, Concordia discors. Hor. Quum tacent, clamant. Cic.
- Sýnônýmia is the use of different words or expressions having the same interpret; as, Non fĕram, non pātiar, non stnam. Cic. Prōmitto, rēctpio, spondeo. 1d.

- Părăbola or Simile is the comparison of one thing with another; as, Rēpente te, tanquam serpens e lătibulis, oculis êminentibus, inflăto collo, tâmidis cervielbus, indistist. Cic.
- 31. Erōtēsis is an earnest question, and often implies a strong affirmation of the contrary; as, Crēdītis avectos hostes? Virg. Hen! que me æquōra possunt actpērē!
- 32. Epánorthösis or Correctio is the recalling of a word, in order to place a stronger or more significant one in its stead; as, Filium unicum ádólescentalum hábeo: al! quid diri? me háběre? Imo hábui. Ter.
- 33. Aposiopēsis, Réticentia, or Interruptia, is leaving a sentence unfinished in consequence of some emotion of the mind; as, Quos ègo—sed mõtos præstat componere fluctus. Vira
- 34. Prōsōpōpæia or personification represents inanimate things as acting or speaking, and persons dead or absent as alive and present; as, Quez (patria) técum, Catthua, sic âgut. Cic. Virtus sâmit aut pônit sécures. Hor.
- Apostróphe is a turning off from the regular course of the subject, to address some person or thing; as, Vi póttur; quid non mortália pectóra cógis, auri sacra fames! Virg.
- 36. Părăleipsis is a pretended omission of something, in order to render it more observed. See Cic. Cat. 1, 6, 14.
- 37. Epiphönēma or Acclimātio is an exclamation or grave reflection on something said before; as, Tanta mölis črut Romānam condēre gentem. Virg.
- 38. Ecphönësis or Exclămătio shows some violent emotion of the mind; as, O tempora! O mores!
- 39. Apŏria, Diŭpŏrësis, or Dūbitūtio, expresses a doubt in regard to what is to be said or done; as, Quos accēdum, aut quos appellem? Sall.
- 40. Prölepsis is the anticipation of an objection before it is made, or of an even before in forteners, Vérum anceps pagnae fuerat fortana. Fuisset: Quem metai mortain virg.
- § 325. To the figures of rhetoric may be subjoined the following terms, used to designate defects or blemishes in style:—
- Barbarism is either the use of a foreign word, or a violation of the rules
  of orthography, etymology, or prosody; as, rigörösus, for rigidus or severus;
  domminus, for döminus; davi, for dedi.
- Solecism is a violation of the rules of syntax; as, Venus pulcher; vos invidenus.
- Neoterism is the use of words or phrases introduced by authors living subsequently to the best ages of Latinity; as, murdrum, a murder; constabilarius, a constable.
- 4. Tautology is a repetition of the same meaning in different words; as, Jam vos aciem, et prælia, et hostem poscitis. Sil.
- Amphibòlia is the use of equivocal words or constructions; as, Gallus, a Gaul, or a cock. Aio te, Æáctda, Romanos vincère posse. Quint.
- 6. Idiotism is a construction peculiar to one or more languages: thus, the ablative after comparatives is a Latinism. When a peculiarity of one language is imitated in another, this is also called idiotism. Thus, Mitte mihi verbum, instead of Fac me certiforem, is an Anglicism.

#### ROMAN MODE OF RECKONING.

#### I. OF TIME.

#### 1. The Roman Day.

§ 326. (1.) With the Romans, as with us, the day was either civil or natural. Their civil day, like ours, extended from midnight. The natural day continued from sunrise to sunset, as, on the other hand, the night extended from sunset to sunrise. The natural day and night were each divided into twelve equal parts or hours, which were consequently of different length, according to the varying length of the days and nights in the successive seasons of the year. It was only at the equinox that the diurnal and nocturnal hours of the Romans were equal to each other, as each was then equal to the twenty-fourth part of the civil day.

(2.) In the Roman camp the night was further divided into four watches (vigitie), consisting each of three Roman hours, the second and fourth watches ending respectively at midnight and at sunrise.

#### 2. The Roman Month and Year.

(1.) The calendar of the Romans, as rectified by Julius Cæsar, agreed with our own in the number of months, and of the days in each, according to the following table:—

 Jānnūrius . 31 days.
 Maius . . 31 days.
 September 30 days.

 Februārius 28 or 29.
 Jūnius . . 30 "
 Octōber . . 31 "

 Martius . . 31 days.
 Quintilis 31 "
 Nõvember 30 "

 Aprilis . . 30 "
 Sextilis . 31 "
 Nõeember 31 "

In early times the Roman year began with March, and the names Quintilis, Sexilis, September, etc., indicated the distance of those months from the commencement of the year. Quintilis and Sexilis were afterwards called Jūlius and Augustus in honor of the first two emperors. The Romans, instead of reckoning in an uninterrupted series from the first to the last day of a month, had in each month three points or periods from which their days were counted—the Calends, the Nones, and the Ides. The Calends (Cālendæ), were al-fith, and the Ides (Idus), the thirteenth; except in March, May, July, and October, when the Nones occurred on the seventh day, and the Ides on the fifteenth.

(2.) They always counted forward, from the day whose date was to be determined, to the next Calends, Nones, or Ides, and designated the day by its distance before such point. After the first day of the month, therefore, they began to reckon so many days before the Nones; after the Nones, so many days before the Ides, so many before the Ides, so many before the Calends, of the next month.

Thus, the second of January was denoted by quarto Nonas Januarias, or Januarii, seil. die ante: the third, tertio Nonas, the fourth, pridie Nonas, and the fifth, Nonis. The sixth was denoted by vctavo tdus; the seventh,

septimo Idus; and so on to the thirteenth, on which the Ides fell. The four-teenth was denoted by undēcigēsimo Cilendas Februārias, or Februārii; and so on to the end of the month.

- (3.) The day preceding the Calends, Nones, and Ides, was termed pridie Calendas, etc., seil. ante: in designating the other days, both the day of the Calends, etc., and that whose date was to be determined, were reckoned; hence the second day before the Calends, etc., was called tertio, the third quarto, etc.
- (4.) To reduce the Roman calendar to our own, therefore, when the day is between the Calends and the Nones or between the Nones and the Ides, it is necessary to take one from the number denoting the distance of the given day from the Nones or the Ides, and to subtract the remainder from the number of the day on which the Nones or Ides fell in the given month.

Thus, to determine the day equivalent to *IV. Nonas Jānuārias*, we take 1 from 4, and subtract the remainder, 3, from 5, the day on which the Nones of January fell (i. e. 4—1=3, and 5—3=2): this gives 2, or the second of January, for the day in question. So *VI. Idus Aprilis*: the Ides of April fulling upon the 13th, we take (6—1, i. e.) 5 from 13, which leaves 8 (i. e. 6—1=5, and 13—5=8): the expression, therefore, denotes the 8th of April.

(a.) In reckoning the days before the Calends, as they are not the last day of the current month, but the first of the following, it is necessary to subtract two from the number denoting the distance of the given day from the Calends of the following month, and to take the remainder from the number of days in the month.

Thus, XV. Cal. Quantiles is 15-2=13, and 30-13=17, i. e. the Roman date XV. Cal. Quint is equivalent to the 17th of June.

(b.) To reduce our calendar to the Roman, the preceding method is to be reversed. Thus when the given day is between the Calends and the Nones or between the Nones and the Ides, (unless it be the day before the Nones or the Ides), we are to add one to the number denoting the day of the month, according to our reckoning, on which the Nones or Ides fell. But if the day is after the Ides, (unless it be the last day of the month), we must add two to the number of days in the month, and then subtract the number denoting the day of the month as expressed in our reckoning. The remainder will be the day before the Nones, Ides or Calends.

Thus to find the Roman date corresponding to the third of April, we have 5+1-3=3; the required date, therefore, is III. Non. Apr.—To find the proper Roman expression for our tenth of December we have 13+1-10=4; the date, therefore, is IV. Id. Dec.—The Roman expression for the 22d of August, in pursuance of the above rule, is found thus, 31+2-22=11, and the date is XI. Cal. Sept.

- (5.) In leap year, both the 24th and 25th of February were called the sixth before the Calends of March. The 24th was called dies bisextus, and the year itself annus bisextus, bissextile or leap year.
- (a.) The day after the Calends, etc., was sometimes called postridie calendas, etc.
- (b.) The names of the months are properly adjectives, though often used as nouns, mensis being understood.

# (6.) The correspondence of our calendar with that of the Romans is exhibited in the following

TABLE.

Days of our months.	Mar. Mai. Jul. Oct.	Jan. Aug. Dec.	APR. JUN. SEPT. NOV.	FEBR.
1	Calendæ.	Calendæ.	Calendæ.	Calendæ.
2	VI. Nonas.	IV. Nonas.	IV. Nonas.	IV. Nonas.
3	V. "	III. "	III. "	III. "
4	IV. "	Pridie "	Pridie "	Pridie "
5 6 7	III. "	Nonæ.	Nonæ.	Nonæ.
6	Pridie Non.	VIII. Idus.	VIII. Idus.	VIII. Idns.
7	Nonæ.	VII. "	VII. "	VII. "
8	VIII. Idus.	VI. "	VI. "	VI. "
9	VII. "	v. "	V. "	v. "
10	VI. "	IV. "	IV. "	IV. "
11'	V. "	III. "	III. "	III. "
12	iv. "	Pridie "	Pridie "	Pridie "
13	III. "	Idus.	Idus.	Idus.
14	Pridie Id.	XIX. Cal.	XVIII. Cal.	XVI. Cal.
15	Idus.	XVIII. "	XVII. "	XV. "
16	XVII. Cal.	XVII. "	XVI. "	XIV. "
17	XVI. "	XVI. "	XV. "	XIII. "
18	XV. "	XV. "	XIV. "	XII. "
19	XIV. "	XIV. "	XIII. "	XI. "
20	XIII. "	XIII. "	XIL. "	X. "
21	XII. "	XII. "	XI. "	IX. "
22	XI. "	XI. "	X. "	VIII. "
23	X. "	X. "	IX. "	VII. "
24	îx. "	ix. "	VIII. "	VI. "
25	VIII. "	VIII. "	VII. "	V. "
26	VII. "	VII. "	VI. "	iv. "
27	VI. "	VI. "	V. "	ш. "
28	v. "	v. "	IV. "	Pridie " Mai
29	IV. "	iv. "	III. "	A I ROLE MINI
30	III. "	iii. "	Pridie Cal.	
31	Pridie Cal.	Pridie Cal.	I I IIII OIII.	

(7.) In leap-year the last seven days of February were reckoned thus:-

23. VII. Călendas Martias. 24. bisexto Cal. Mart. 27. IV. Cal. Mart.

24. bisexio Cai. Ma 25. VI. Cal. Mart. 26. V. " " 28. III. " "
29. pridie Cal. Mart.

(a.) Hence in reducing a date of February in leap-year to the Roman date, for the first 23 days we proceed according to the preceding rule in 4, (b.), as if the month had only 28 days. The 24th is marked as bisexto Cul. Mart., and to obtain the proper expression for the remaining five days we regard the month as having 29 days. Thus the 27th of February in leap-year is 29+2-27=4, and the proper Roman expression is IV. Cul. Mart.

(6.) On the other hand, to reduce a Roman date of February in leap-year to our date we reverse the above process, and during the Nones and Ides and until the VII. Câleudas Martias we reckon the month to have only 28 days:—bisexto Cal. Mart. is set down as the 24th, and for the remaining days designated as VI. V. IV. III. and pridic Cal. Mart. we reckon the month to have 29 days. Thus III. Cal. Mart. is 3—2=1, and 29—1=28, and the given day is equivalent to the 28th of February.

## 370 APPENDIX.—ROMAN MODE OF RECKONING—MONEY. § 327.

- (8.) The Latins not only said tertio, pridie, etc., Cilendas, etc., but also ante diem tertium, etc., Cilendas, etc.; and the latter form in Cicero and Livy is far more common than the former, and is usually written thus, a. d. III. Cal., etc.
- (9.) The expression ante diem was used as an indeclinable noun, and is joined with in and ex; as, Consul Lătinas ferias in ante diem tertium Idus Sextilis êdiză, The consul appointed the Latin festival for the third day before the Ides of August. Liv. Supplicătio indicta est ex ante diem quintum Idus Octobres. Id. So, Ad pridie Nona Maios. Cie.
- (10.) The week of seven days (hebdimas), was not in use among the Romans under the republic, but was introduced under the emperors. The days of the week were then named from the planets; dies Södis, Sunday; dies Ling, Monday; dies Martis, Tuesday; dies Mercürii, Wednesday; dies Jövis, Thursday; dies Veneris, Friday; dies Säturni, Saturday.
- (11.) The term nundinæ (from novem—dies) denotes the regular market day at Rome when the country people came into the city; but it is not used for the purpose of denoting the period of eight days intervening between two successive market days.
- (12.) The year at Rome was designated by the names of the consuls for that year. Thus Virgil was born, M. Licinio Crasso et Ca. Pompeio Magno consulbus, i. e. in the year of the consulship of Crassus and Pompev. But in Roman authors events are often dated from the year in which Rome was founded, which, according to Varro, was in the 753d year before the birth of Christ. This period was designated as anno urbis condita, and by abbreviation, a. u. c., or simply u. c., and sometimes by a. alone, before the numerals.

Thus the birth of Virgil was a.u.c. 684. To reduce such dates to our reckoning, if the given number is less than 754, we subtract it from the latter number, and the difference is the required year before Christ. The birth of Virgil therefore is 754–684=70 before Christ.—But if the number of the Roman year exceeds 758, we deduct 753 from the given number, and the remainder is the year after Christ. For example, the emperor Augustus died a.u.c. 767, and the corresponding year of our era is 767–753=14.

## II. TABLES OF MONEY, WEIGHT, AND MEASURE.

#### OF THE As.

§ 327. The Romans used this word (As) to denote, I. The copper coin, whose value (in the time of Cicero) was about one cent and a half of our money. II. The unit of weight (libra), or of measure (jagèrum). III. Any unit or integer considered as divisible; as, of inheritances, interest, houses, etc.; whence ex asse hères, one who inherits the whole. The multiples of the As are, Dipondius (duo pondo; for the As originally weighed a pound), i. e. 2 Asses; Estertius (sesqui tertius), i. e. 2 Asses; Tressis, i. e. 3 Asses; Quatrussis, i. e. 4 Asses; and so on to Centussis, i. e. 100 Asses. The As, whatever unit it represented, was divided into twelve parts or uncie, and the different fractions received different names, as follows:

Dextans       40         Dodrans       9         Bes.       8         Septunx       7	Quineunx         Uncia           5 Trieus         4           Quidrans, or Teruncius         3           Sextaris         2           Uncia         1
Sēinis 6	Sescuncia

S Cts. M.

'The Uncia was divided in the following manner:-

#### 1 Uncia contained 2 Semunciæ.

64	44	3	Duellæ.
66	44	4	Sīcīlīci.
66	44	6	Sextŭlæ.
**	46		Drachma

" 24 Serūpūla.
" 48 Oboli.

#### ROMAN COINS.

These were the Tēruncius, Sembella, and As or Lībella, of copper; the Sestertius, Quinārius (or Victoriātus), and Dēnārius, of silver; and the Aureus, of gold.

		8	Cts.	M.
The	Těruncius	0	0	3.9
2	Těruncji make 1 Sembella	0	0	7.8
2	Sembellæ " 1 As or Lībella	0	1	5.6
24	Asses* " 1 Sestertius	0	3	9
2	Sestertii " 1 Quinārins	0	7	8
2	Quīnārii " 1 Dēnārius		15	6
25	Denārii " 1 Aureus		90	0

<sup>\*</sup> Sometimes also (in copper) the triens, sextans, uncia, sextula, and dupondius.

#### ROMAN COMPUTATION OF MONEY.

#### Sestertii Nummi.

Sestertins (or numinus)	U	0	9	
Dēcem sestertii	0	39	0	
Centum sestertii	3	90	0	
Mille sestertii (equal to a sestertium)	39	0	0	
Sestertia.				
Sestertium (equal to mille sestertii)	39	0	0	
Dinam anatonia	900	^	^	

Sestertium (equal to mille sestertii)	39	0	0
Decem sestertia	390	0	0
Centum, centum sestertia, or centum millia sestertium	3900	0	0
Décies sestertium, or décies centena millia nummum	39000	0	0
Centies, or centies H. S	390000	0	0
Millies H. S	3900000	0	
Millies centies 11. S	4290000	0	0

N. B.—The marks denoting a Sestertius nummus are IIS., LLS., IIS., which are properly abbreviations for 2.1-2 asses. Observe, also, that when a line is placed over the numbers, centen millia is understood, as in the case of the numeral adverbs; thus, H. S. MO. is millies centies IIS.; whereas IIS. MC. is only 1100 Sestertii.

#### ROMAN CALCULATION OF INTEREST.

The Romans received interest on their loans monthly, their highest rate being one per cent. (centesima), a month, i. c. 12 per cent a year. As this was the highest rate, it was reckoned as the as or unit in reference to the lower rates, which were denominated, according to the usual division of the as, sēmisses, trientes, quādrantes, etc., i. c. the half, third, fourth, etc., of the as or of 12 per cent. according to the following table:—

Per ce	nt. a yeo
Asses ūsūræ or centēsīmæ	12
Sēmisses ūsūræ	6
Trientes ūsūræ	
Quadrantes üsüræ	
Sextantes ūsūræ	2
Unciæ ūsūræ	
Quincunces ūsūræ	
Septunces ūsūræ	
Besses ūsūræ	8
Dodrantes ūsūræ	9
Dextantes üsüræ	10
Deunces üsüræ	

#### ROMAN WEIGHTS.

			Oz.	Dwt	s. Gr.
	Siliqua		0	0	3.036
8	Siliquæ mal	ke 1 Občlus	0	0	9.107
2	Oběli "	1 Scrūpulum	0	0	18.214
3	Scrūpŭla "	1 Drachma	0	2	6.643
1}	Drachma "	1 Sextŭla	0	3	0.857
1 1	Sextŭla "	1 Sīcīlīcus	0	4	13.286
	Sīcīlīcus "	1 Duella	0	6	1.714
3	Duellæ "	1 Uncia	0	18	5.143
12	Uncize "	1 Libra* (As)	10	18	13.714

<sup>\*</sup> The Libra was also divided, according to the fractions of the As, into Deunx, etc.

#### ROMAN MEASURES FOR THINGS DRY.

			English Corn Measure.			
			Peck.	Gai.	Pint.	Sol. in.
	Lĭgŭla		0	0	0 1-48	0.01
4	Ligulæ make	1 Cvăthus	0	0	0 1-12	0.04
14	Cvăthus "	1 Acētābŭlum	0	0	0 1-8	0.06
4	Acētābŭla"	1 Hēmīna	0	0	0 1-2	0.24
2	Hēmīnæ "	1 Sextárius	0	0	1	0.48
16	Sextārii "	1 Modius	1	ŏ	0	7.68

#### ROMAN MEASURES FOR THINGS LIQUID.

				Englis	h Wine	Measure.
				Galls.	Pints.	Sol. in,
	Līgŭla			0	0 1-48	0.117
4		ıke	1 Cyăthus	0	0 1-12	0.469
		16	1 Acētābŭlum	Ó	0 1-8	0.704
2	Acētābŭla '	14	1 Quartārius	Ó	0 1-4	1.409
2		"	1 Hēmīna	Ó	0 1-2	2.876
2		44	1 Sextārius*	Ö	1	5.636
6		44	1 Congius	ŏ	7	4.942
4		44	1 Urna	š	4 1-2	5.33
2		44	1 Amphora (or Quadrantal).	7	î -	10.66
20		"	1 Cūleus	143	3	11.095

<sup>\*</sup> The Sextârius was also divided into twelve equal parts, called cyāthi, and therefore the calires were denominated sextantes, quadrantes, trientes, according to the number of cuttin which they contained.

N. B.— $C\bar{a}dus$ , congiārius, and dōlium, are the names of certain vessels, not measures, of capacity.

#### ROMAN MEASURES OF LENGTH.

				English paces.	Feet.	Inch. Dec.
	Dicitus transv	ersus.		0	0	$0.725\ 1-4$
1 1-5	Digitus	make	1 Uncia	0	0	0.967
3	Unciæ	44	1 Palmus minor	0	0	2.901
4	Palmi minores	66	1 Pes	0	0	11.604
1 1-4	Pes	66	1 Palmipes	0	1	2.505
	Palmipes	"	1 Cŭbĭtus	0	1	5.406
	Cŭbitus	66	1 Grădus	0	2	5.01
2	Grădus	44	1 Passus	0	4	10.02
125	Passus	66	1 Stădium	120	4	4.5
8	Stădia	44	1 Milliärium	967	0	0

#### ROMAN SQUARE MEASURES.

	Roman sq. feet.	English rods.	Sq. pls.	Sq. feet.
Jūgčrum (As)	28,800	2	18	250.05
Deunx	26,400	2	10	183.85
Dextans	24,000	2	02	117.64
Dodrans	21,600	1	34	51.42
Bes	19,200	1	25	257.46
Septunx	16,800	1	17	191.25
Sēmis	14,400	1	09	125.03
Quincunx	12,000	1	01	58.82
Triens	9,600	0	32	264.85
Quādrans	7,200	0	24	198.64
Sextans	4,800	0	16	132.43
Uncia	2,400	0	08	66.21

REMARK 1. The Romans reckoned their copper money by asses, their silver money by sestertii, and their gold money by aurei and sometimes by Attic talents.

REM. 2. The as, as the unit of money, was originally a pound of copper, but its weight was gradually diminished, until, in the later days of the republic, it amounted to only 1-24th of a pound.

REM. 3. (a.) The dendrius was a silver colu, originally equal in value to ten asses, whence its name; but, after the weight of the as was reduced, the dendrius was equal to eighteen asses.

(b.) The sestertius, or sesterce, was one fourth of the dēnārius, or two asses and a half (sēmistertius). The sestertius was called emphatically nummus, as in it all large sums were recknoed after the colining of silver money.

(c.) The aureus (a gold coin), in the time of the emperors, was equal to 25 dēnārii, or 100 sesterces.

Rem. 4. In reckoning money, the Romans called any sum under 2000 sesterces so many sestertii; as, decem sestertii, ten sesterces; centum sestertii, a hundred sesterces.

REM. 5. Sums from 2000 sesterces (inclusive) to 1,000,000, they denoted either by mille, millia, with sestertiam (gen. plur.), or by the plural of the neuter noun sestertium, which itself signified a thousand sesterces. Thus they said quadragina millia sestertium, or quadragina sestercia, to denote 40,000 sesterces. With the genitive sestertium, millia was sometimes omitted; as, sestertium centum, soil. millia, 100,000 sesterces.

REM. 6. To denote a million, or more, they used a combination; thus, décies centéma millia sestertitim, 1,000,000 sesterces. The words centéma millio, however, were generally omitted; thus, décies sestertitim, and sometimes merely décies. See § 118, 5. So, centies, 10 millions; millies, 100 millions.

Q., or Qu., Quintus.

A., Aulus.

REM. 7. Some suppose that sestertium, when thus joined with the numeral adverbs, is always the neuter noun in the nominative or accusative singular. The genitive and ablative of that noun are thus used; as, Decies visterici doit, With a down of 1,000,000 sesterces. Re. Quinquigies sestertics, \$5,000,000 sesterces. 1d. But this usage does not occur in Cicero.

#### ABBREVIATIONS.

The following are the most common abbreviations of Latin words: M. T. C., Marcus Tullius

Ser., Servius. C., Caius, or Gaius. Cicero. S., or Sex., Sextus. Sp., Spurius. T., Titus. M., Mānius. Cn., Cnens. D., Décimus. Mam., Mamercus. N., Numerius. L., Lūcius. Ti., or Tib., Tiberius. M., Marcus. P., Publius. Pont. Max., pontifex: A. d., ante diem. A. U. C., anno urbis con-Filius; as, M. F., Marci filius. maximus. Pr., prætor. Ictus, jūrisconsultus. Cal., or Kal., Cilenda. Id., Idus. Proc., proconsul. Cos., Consul. Imp., imperator. Resp., respublica. S., salūtem, sacrum, or Coss., Consules. J. O. M., Jovi, optimo D., Divus. maximo. sēnātus. S. D. P., sălūtem dicit D. D., dono dedit. N., něpos. plūrimam. D. D. D., dat, dicat, dedi-Non., Nonce. cat, or dono dicat, de-S. P. Q. R., Senātus popu-P. C., patres conscripti. lusque Romānus. dicat. Pl., plebis. S. C., sēnātûs consultum. Des., dēsignātus. D. M., dils mānibus. Pop., populus. P. R., populus Romanus. Tr., tribūnus. Eq. Rom., eques Romanus.

To these may be added terms of reference; as, c., caput, chapter; cf., confer, compare; l. c., loco citato; l. l., loco laudato, in the place quoted; v., versus, verse.

## DIFFERENT AGES OF ROMAN LITERATURE.

- § 329. 1. Of the Roman literature for the first five centuries after the foundation of the city, but few vestiges remain. The writers of the succeeding centuries have been arranged in four ages, in reference to the purity of the language in the period in which they flourished. These are called the golden, silver, brazen, and iron ages.
- 2. The golden age is reckoned from the time of Livius Andronīcus, about A. U. C. 514, to the death of Augustus, A. U. C. 767, or A. D. 14, a period of a little more than 250 years. The writers of the early part of this age are valued rather on account of their antiquity, and in connection with the history of the language, than as models of style. It was not till the age of Cicero, that Roman literature reached its highest elevation. The era comprehending the generation immediately preceding, and that immediately succeeding, that of Cicero, as well as his own, is the period in which the most distinguished writers of Rome flourished; and their works are the standard of purity in the Latin language.

- 3. The silver age extended from the death of Augustus to the death of Trajan, A. D. 118, a period of 104 years. The writers of this age were inferior to those who had preceded them; yet several of them are worthy of commendation.
- 4. The brazen age comprised the interval from the death of Trajan to the time when Rome was taken by the Goths, A. D. 410. From the latter epoch commenced the iron age, during which the Latin language was much adulterated with foreign words, and its style and spirit essentially injured.
- 5. The body of Latin writings has been otherwise arranged by Dr. Freund, on as to be comprised in three main periods,—the Ante-classical, Classical, and Post-classical. The ante-classical extends from the oldest fragments of the language to Lucretius and Varro; the classical from Cicero and Cæsar to Tacitus, Suetonius, and the younger Pliny inclusive; the post-classical from that time to the fifth century of our era. The classical Latinity is subdivided into (a. Ciceronian, (b.) Augustan, (c.) post-Augustan, and to the language of the fourth and fifth centuries he has given the title of late Latin.

#### LATIN WRITERS IN THE DIFFERENT AGES.

#### (From the Lexicon of Facciolatus.)

#### WRITERS OF THE GOLDEN AGE.

Lævius.
C. Nævius.
Statius Cæcilius.
Q. Ennius.
M. Pacuvius.
L. Accius.

Livius Andronīcus.

M. Pacuvius.
L. Accius.
C. Lucilius.
Sex. Turpilius.
L. Afranius.

I.. Cornelius Sisenna.
P. Nigidius Figŭlus.
C. Decius Laberius.
M. Verrius Flaccus.
Varro Attacīnus.

Titinius.
L. Pomponius.
C. Sempronius Asellio.
Cn. Matius.

Q. Novius. C. Q. Atta.

L. Čassius Hemīna.
 Fenestella.

 Q. Claud. Quadrigarius.
 Cœlius Antipater.

 Fabius Pictor.

Cn. Gellius. L. Piso, and others.

Of the works of the preceding writers, only a few fragments remain.

M. Porcius Cato. M. Accius Plautus. M. Terentius Afer.

M. Terentius Afer.
T. Lucretius Carus.
C. Valerius Catullus.
P. Syrus.
C. Julius Cæsar.

C. Julius Cæsar.
 C. Cornelius Nepos.
 M. Tullius Cicero.

Sex. Aurelius Propertius. C. Sallustius Crispus. M. Terentius Varro.

M. Terentius Varro.
Albius Tibullus.
P. Virgilius Maro.
T. Livins

T. Livius. M. Manilius. M. Vitruvius. P. Ovidius Naso.

Q. Horatius Flaccus. C. Pedo Albinovānus. Gratius Faliscus. Phædrus.

C. Cornificius.
A. Hurtius, or Oppius.
P. Cornelius Sevērus.

To these may be added the following names of lawyers, whose opinions are found in the digests:—

Q. Mutius Scævčla. Alfenus Varus. M. Antistius Labeo.

Masurius Sabīnus.

Of the writers of the golden age, the most distinguished are Terence, Catullus, Cæsar, Nepos, Cicero, Virgil, Horace, Ovid, T. Livy, and Sallust.

#### WRITERS OF THE SILVER AGE.

A. Cornelius Celsus.
P. Velleius Paterculus.
T. Petronius Arbiter.
C. Plinius Secundus.
C. Columella.
C. Silius Italicus.
C. Plinius Cecilius Secundus.
C. Polynogius Mela

Columella.
Pomponius Mela.
A. Persius Flaccus.
C. Valerius Flaccus.
C. Julius Solinus.
C. Julius Solinus.
C. Annœus Senēca.
L. Annœus Senēca.
M. Valerius Martiālis.
C. Cilinius Caceilius Secundus.
L. Annæus Florus.
C. Suetonius Tranquillus.
L. Annœus Senēca.
M. Valerius Martiālis.

The age to which the following writers should be assigned is somewhat uncertain:—

certain:—
Q. Curtius Rūfus. Scribonius Largus. L. Fenestella. Valerius Prōbus. Sulpitia. Atteius Capito.

Of the writers of the silver age, the most distinguished are Celsus, Velleius, Columella, the Senecas, the Plinies, Juvenal, Quintilian, Tacitus, Suetonius, and Curtius.

#### WRITERS OF THE BRAZEN AGE.

A. Gellius. Vulcatius Gallicanus. Ammianus Marcel-L. Apuleius. Trebellius Pollio. līnus. Q. Septimius Tertullia-Flavius Vopiscus. Cœlius Aureliānus. Vegetius Renātus. Aurel. Theodorus Macronus. Flavius Eutropius. Q. Serēnus Sammonibius. cus. Rheinnius Fannius. Q. Aurelius Symmächus. Censorīnus. Arnobius Afer. D. Magnus Ausonius. Thaseius Cæcilius L. Cœlius Lactantius.

Paulīnus Nolānus. Cypriānus. Ælius Donātus. Sex. Aurelius Victor. C. Vettus Juveneus. T. Julius Calpurnius. Aurel. Prudentius Cle-M. Aurelius Nemesiānus. Julius Firmīcus. mens. Elius Spartiānus. Fab. Marius Victorinus. Cl. Claudiānus. Julius Capitolinus. Sex. Rūfus, or Rūfus Marcellus Empiricus. Ælius Lampridius. Festus. Falconia Proba.

## Of an Age not entirely certain.

Valerius Maxīmus. Terentiānus Maurus. Sosipăter Charisius. Justīnus. Minutius Fēlix. Flavius Aviānus.

The opinions of the following lawyers are found in the digests:-

Licinius Procălus.
Neratius Priscus.
P. Juventius Celsus.
Priscus Jabolenus.
Callistrătus.
Licinius Podulus.
Salvius Julianus.
Callistratus.
Licinius Paulus.
Sex. Pomponius.
Venuleius Saturnīnus.
Elius Marcianus.
Elius Gallus, and others.

Of the writers of the brazen age, Justin, Terentianus, Victor, Lactantius, and Claudian, are most distinguished.

The age to which the following writers belong is uncertain. The style of some of them would entitle them to be ranked with the writers of the preceding ages, while that of others would place them even below those of the iron age.

Palladius Rutilius Taurus Emilianus.
Emilius Mācer.
Messāla Corvinus.
Vibius Sequester.
Julius Obsēquens.
L. Ampelius.
Apicius Cœlius.
Sex. Pompeius Festus.
Probus (auctor Notā-

rum.)
Fulgentius Planciădes.
Hyginus.
C. Cæsar Germanĭcus.
P. Victor.
P. Vegetius.

Auctores Priapeiorum. Catalecta Virgilii Ovidii.

Auctor orationis Sallustii in Cic. et Ciceronis in Sall.; item illius Antéquam îret in exsilium. Auctor Epistolæ ad Oc-

tavium.
Auctor Panegyrici ad
Pisōnem.
Declamationes quæ tri-

buuntur Quintiliāno, Porcio Latroni, Calpurnio Flacco.

Latīnus Pacātus.

Interpres Darētis Phrygii, et Dictyos Cretensis. Scholiastæ Vetěres.

Grammatici Antiqui. Rhetõres Antiqui. Medici Antiqui. Catalecta Petroniana. Pervigilium Venēris. Poematia et Epigrammăta vetēra a Pithæo collecta.

Monumentum Ancyrānum. Fasti Consulāres. Inscriptiones Veteres.

#### WRITERS OF THE IRON AGE.

Cl. Rutilius Numatiānus.
Servius Honorātus.
D. Hieronýmus.
D. Augustīnus.
Sulpicius Sevērus.
Paulus Orosius.
Cocius Sedulius.
Codex Theodosiānus.
Martiānus Capella.
Claudiānus Mamertus.
Sidonius Apollināris.

Claudius Mamertinus, et alii, quorum sunt Panegyrici vetères. Alcimus Avitus. Maul. Severinus Boëthius. Prisciānus. Nonius Marcellus. Justiniāni Institutiones et Codex.

Ruf. Festus Aviēnus.

2t. Arātor.

- M. Aurelius Cassidōrus.
Fl. Cresconius Corippus.
Venantius Fortunātus.
E- Isidōrus Hispalensis.
Anonymus Ravennas.
Aldhelmus or Althelmus.
Paulus Diacōnus.

# INDEX.

The figures in the following Index designate the Sections and their divisions: R. stands for remark, N. for note, E. for exception, w. for with, and pr. for prosody.

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